A Sketch of Universal Histor

VOL. I.

ANCIENT HISTORY

ANCIENT HISTOR[Y]

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PREFACE.

THE present volume of "Universal History," from the pen of Professor Rawlinson, embraces a period extending from the Creation of the World to the Destruction of the Roman Empire in the West by the Barbarians, A.D. 476. It tells the history of the various Nations and States of the earth during that time (and to a somewhat later date in the case of Persia), in a series of parallel narratives, giving especial prominence to the leading events which presided over the formation and development of those Great Empires into which mankind was mainly grouped.

Until the discoveries of quite recent years, it may be said that some parts of this history were only in the condition of fable. No means existed of corroborating, by a reference to contemporary inscriptions, the traditional statements handed down from one writer to another, because those inscriptions had not yet been deciphered. Many of them, indeed, had not yet been disentombed.

Since the key has been found to the meaning of the innumerable monuments, which for so many centuries had kept their secret, it has become possible to construct a record of the Ages in question, as authentic, in many respects, as the history of our own country.

This sketch of Ancient History embodies the results of the latest investigations on the subject, and in that respect it will be found more interesting and complete than any account of the same period hitherto published.

ANCIENT HISTORY.

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ANCIENT HISTORY.

FIRST PERIOD.

From the Creation to the Flood.

STRICTLY speaking, this period scarcely belongs to History, which is an account of the rise, progress and affairs of States and Nations. We have no trustworthy account of it except the briet sketch contained in Genesis i.—vii., which tells us four principal things:—1. That man was created in a state of innocence, and lived for a time, the duration of which is not mentioned, in Paradise; 2. That he fell from this state, was ejected from Paradise, and forced to obtain subsistence by toil and labour; 3. That in course of time all mankind, excepting one family, "corrupted their way before God," fell into evil courses, and provoked God to destroy them; and 4. That the destruction was effected by means of a Flood, which covered the whole inhabited earth, and swept away all mankind, excepting eight persons.

The duration of the period is variously stated in the Hebrew, the Septuagint and the Samaritan texts.

The time given is shortest in the Samaritan, which makes it 1307 years. The Hebrew enlarges this amount by nearly three centuries and a half, making the time 1656 years. The Septuagint further enlarges it by above six centuries more, estimating the whole period at 2262 years. There are no means of deciding which of the three estimates is preferable; and it cannot be regarded as certain that the numbers set down by the original writer have been preserved intact in any of them. We can only say that the Hebrews probably estimated the length of the period before the Flood at something between thirteen and twenty-three centuries. Babylonians estimated it at 4320 centuries. Modern anthropologists maintain that man must have existed upon the earth for 300 centuries at the least, and some extend the time to 1,000 centuries.

SECOND PERIOD.

From the Flood to the Commencement of Monarchy in Egypt and Babylon (about B.C. 3250—2500).

Mankind, reduced to eight persons, had to spring up afresh from a new beginning. Some centuries were required for the re-peopling of the regions most accessible from the position where the Ark rested. These were the south-western regions of Asia and the adjacent

parts of Europe and Africa. At first nomadic hab seem to have prevailed, and the bulk of manki supported themselves as hunters, fishermen or herd men. Under these circumstances a wide diffusi took place, each tribe and even family seeking untrodden pasture or a virgin hunting-ground. Trib communities were formed, which at first were unde patriarchal government, but grew by degrees into aristocracies, being directed by a number of chiefs. In places especially favoured by nature, population after a time became dense; agriculture was attempted; cities grew up. The eleventh chapter of Genesis contains an account of one attempt to establish, during this period, a great city in Lower Mesopotamia (Shinar), which was miraculously frustrated; and the Babylonian records have also a mention of the occurrence. Its date is shrouded in obscurity, not only from the discrepancies between the Samaritan, the Septuagint, and the Hebrew numbers, which in this period are again at variance, but from the fact that the writer of Genesis does not distinctly connect it with any name in his genealogies. Usher's date for it (*cir.* B.C. 2217) is certainly too late by several centuries, as is his date for the Flood (B.C. 2349). The Septuagint numbers, which were preferred by Josephus, and by all the early Christians, place the Flood 900 years earlier than the Hebrew numbers, or about B.C. 3250. If this date be accepted as approximate, and the rise of monarchy in Egypt and Babylon be regarded as having taken place

18 ut B.C. 2500, there will be seven centuries and a half—the multiplication of mankind, and the development of tribes into nations, between the Flood and the dawn of History Proper which forms the commencement of the "Third Period."

The main feature of the "Second Period" was ethnic development. However ethnic differences grew up, which is a problem for the anthropologist and not for the historian, it is certain that three marked families of nations very shortly made their appearance, and that mankind was with reason divided by the writer of Genesis under three heads, which he associated with the fact that Noah had three sons, among whose families the earth was divided. The Indo-European or Japhetic race overspread the North, occupying Armenia, most of Asia Minor, Greece, Thrace, Scythia, the Caucasus and the country north of it, the tract below the Caspian, and the regions whereto that tract leads, towards the East. The Semitic race held a central position, forming the population of Syria and Mesopotamia, of Elam or Susiana, and of great part of Arabia. The Hamitic or Allophylian race pressed southward and held Palestine, Phœnicia, Egypt, Ethiopia, Southern and South-Eastern Arabia, and Lower Mesopotamia, or the tract about Babylon. In a few places the races were mixed, as the Semites and Japhetites in Cappadocia, and the Semites and Hamites in Southern and South-Western Arabia. Occasionally one race ousted

another, and took its place, as the Hebrews (Semites) ousted the Canaanites (Hamites); but in general, each race clung tenaciously to every tract that it had once occupied.

The nations of the Japhetic stock which were developed at an early date were: 1. The GIMIRI, (Gomer) or Kimmerians, who possessed the Ukraine; 2. The SAKA (Scythians), called in Scripture Magog; 3. The MADA (Madai) or Medes; 4. The YAFONES (Javan), the Ionians or Greeks; 5. The TUPLAI (Tubal) or Tibareni; 6. The MUSKAI (Meshech) or Moschi; and 7. The THRACIANS (Tiras) or Threïcians. Those of Semitic origin were: 1. The ELAMITES or Elymæans (Elam); 2. The ASSYRIANS (Asshur); 3. The RUTEN, or Rutennu (Lud); 4. The SYRIANS or Aramæans (Aram); 5. The HEBREWS (Eber); and 6. The JOKTANITE ARABS (Joktan). To the Hamitic stock belonged: 1. The CUSHITES or Ethiopians (Cush); 2. The EGYPTIANS (Mizraim); 3. The BABYLONIANS (Nimrod) 4. The CANAANITES (Canaan); 5. The HITTITES (Heth) or Khita; 6. The HAMATHITES (Hamath); 7. The PHILISTINES (Philistim); and 8. The South-Eastern or CUSHITE ARABS (Dedan, Sheba, Sabtah, &c.) Other races either branched off from these or were the result of an intermixture, which sometimes, though rarely, took place. The nations of each stock had, as a general rule, allied languages, similar manners and customs, and a special physical type.

THIRD PERIOD.

FROM THE COMMENCEMENT OF MONARCHY IN EGYPT AND BABYLON (ABOUT B.C. 2500) TO THE CLOSE OF THE OLD EGYPTIAN EMPIRE (ABOUT B.C. 1900).

According to Egyptian tradition, monarchy was set up in Egypt by a certain M'na (Mên or Menes), whc founded a dynasty at This (Tena) at an uncertain date To this dynasty were assigned eight kings, whose unitec reigns covered, according to Manetho, the space c 253 years. These were followed by a second dynasty also Thinite, consisting of nine kings, who reigned 302 years. After this, sovereignty was transferred to Memphis, where there was a third dynasty of nine kings, who reigned for 214 years. Of these paper dynasties there is no contemporary evidence, and no mention on any Egyptian monument until the time of Seti I., or from one to two thousand years after the date of their supposed existence. These dynasties, therefore, may be set down as probably mythical, and Egyptian history may be said to commence with the

FIRST HISTORICAL DYNASTY (or Fourth Dynasty of Manetho).

Abt. B.C.	Native Names.	Greek form of Name.	Length of Dynasty.	Monuments.
	1. Sneferu	Soris (?)		Tablet at W. Magharah.
2500	2. Khufu	Cheops	About	Ditto, and Gt. Pyramid.
to	3. Ratatf	Ratoises	a	None.
	4. Shafra	Chephren		Second Pyramid, Temple of Sphinx, Statues.
2400	5. Menkaura	Mycerinus	Century.	Third Pyramid, Coffin Lid. Mentioned on contemporary Tombs.
	6. Aseskaf			

This dynasty reigned at Memphis, in the immediate vicinity of which its great works, the Pyramids of Ghizeh, were erected. Pyramids of a smaller size and inferior construction had been built earlier, and Egyptian civilisation had been developed to a considerable extent. Hieroglyphic writing had been invented, and was in use, together with a cursive character formed from it. Sculpture, engraving, and mosaic were practised. Several animals, including the cow, the dog and the goose, had been domesticated. Comfortable houses

existed, built of wood and stone. The division of labour had been long established, and besides an agricultural class, Egypt included among her labouring population weavers, workers in metal, stone-cutters, masons, carpenters, upholsterers, wig-makers, embalmers, and probably boat-builders. There was also a large class of nobles, who were landholders, and formed the court of the monarch. It is not unlikely that several kings preceded Sneferu upon the throne, but their very names are uncertain, and no historical events can be with any confidence assigned to them.

Sneferu certainly invaded the Sinaitic peninsula, and there warred with the *Pet* or *An*, who were in his day its inhabitants. He represented himself in a sculpture on the rocks of the Wady Magharah, the earliest historical sculpture in existence, as holding one of their chiefs by the hair of his head, and about to strike him dead with a mace. The peninsula was at that time rich in mines of copper, and in others of a blue stone, perhaps the turquoise, which was greatly coveted by the Egyptians. The Egyptians took possession of the region which contained the mines, and held it for many centuries by means of strong military posts, though without dispossessing the natives, who from time to time made attempts to drive them out and recover the territory. One of these attempts must have been made in the reign of Khufu, Sneferu's successor, who left a memorial of himself on the Magharah rocks

'a-Tu... the close of Manetho's sixth dynasty. Separate king-
...Heracleopolis Parva,
... Of the dynasties
...ces scarcely anything
...dynasty, Manetho's

very similar to that of his predecessor, inscribed with his name and titles.

Khufu is, however, better known to fame, and will be always remembered, so long as the world endures, as the builder of the Great Pyramid. The Egyptians believed that the soul would, sometime or other, be reunited with the body, and therefore took all pains to preserve the body after death. Hence their carefully arranged tombs and their practice of embalming. Pyramids were tombs, the stateliest, the most massive, the most enduring that could be erected. Each contained the body of a king or other grand personage. Egypt contains scores of pyramids of different sizes, of which the three largest are associated with monarchs of this early dynasty. Shafra, who built the Second Pyramid, succeeded Khufu after a short interval, which seems to have been occupied by a prince named Ratatf (Ratoises). Ratatf can only have reigned a few months. Shafra, who married a daughter of Khufu, was the third *great* monarch. His pyramid fell but little short of that built by his predecessor, and was faced with the hardest granite from Elephantine. He probably carved the colossal Sphinx close by the pyramids and built the chapel between its fore-legs. He was also a patron of sculpture, and has left behind him two statues of himself which have much merit. The Third Pyramid was b[illegible] the successor

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designed it was vastly inferior to the first and second. Menkaura was an especially religious king. He was succeeded by Aseskaf, the last king of the dynasty, of whom nothing is recorded that is remarkable.

SECOND HISTORICAL DYNASTY (or Fifth Dynasty of Manetho.)

Abt. B.C.	Native Names.	Greek form of Name.	Length of Dynasty.	Monuments.
	1. Userkaf	Usercheres		Mentioned on Tombs.
	2. Sahura	Sephres		Tablet at Magharah. N. Pyramid of Abousir.
2400	3. Nefer-ar-kara	Nephercheres	About	Mentioned on Tombs.
to	4. Ranuser (An)	Rathures	a	Tablet at Magharah. Middle Pyramid of Abousir.
2300	5. Menkauhor	Mencheres	Century.	Slab in Serapeum. Tablet at Magharah.
	6. Tatkara (Assa)	Tancheres		Tablet at Magharah.
	7. Unas	Onnus		Tombs and Pyramid.

This dynast[illegible] sisted

h dynasty. Separate king-
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Manetho's

None of them was particularly distinguished. The second and fourth warred in the Sinaitic peninsula; and they all seem to have built pyramids, which were not, however, to be compared with those of Khufu and Shafra. They also patronised sculpture, and erected temples on a modest scale, unadorned by bas-reliefs.

THIRD HISTORICAL DYNASTY (or Sixth Dynasty of Manetho).

Abt. B.C.	Native Names.	Greek form of Name.	Length of Dynasty.	Monuments.
	1. Teta	Othoes		Mentioned on Tombs.
2300	2. Pepi (Me-rira)	Phiops	About	Tablet at Magharah. Notices on Tombs.
to	3. Merenra		a	Tablet at Assouan. Notices on Tombs.
2200	4. Neferkara	(Nephercheres)	Century.	Tablet at Magharah. Notices on Tombs.
	5. Net-akert	Nitocris		Completed Third Pyramid.

The kings of the third historical dynasty (Manetho's [illegible]ned at Abydos, which under

pyramid was still the ordinary tomb. Statuary and sculpture in relief improved. Literature grew into favour as a profession. The division of labour advanced, and at least thirty distinct employments can be enumerated. Egypt became more warlike than she had been previously, and conquests were effected or attempted in various quarters. Pepi conquered the Mentu of the Sinaitic peninsula, and invaded the countries of the Amu and Herusha, which lay to the north-east. Several negro tribes on the southern borders of Egypt were reduced to subjection, and employed as soldiers to fight the nations of the north. There was also much activity in the matter of buildings. Temples were erected, or adorned, at Denderah and Tanis—the quarries of Mokattam and El-Kaab were abundantly worked—and the best kinds of stone were constantly transported from one end of the kingdom to the other for the adornment of edifices. The works of the period were not, however, on any great scale. The most important was the enlargement of the Pyramid of Mycerinus by Nitocris, which brought the "Third Pyramid of Ghizeh" into the condition in which it exists to-day.

THE DYNASTIES FROM MANETHO'S SIXTH TO MANETHO'S ELEVENTH.

Th[...] [...]sisted

the close of Manetho's sixth dynasty. Separate kingdoms were set up at Memphis, at Heracleopolis Parva, and at The[bes]—possibly elsewhere. Of the dynasties which r[eigne]d at the two former places scarcely anything is [kno]wn; but of the Theban d[yn]asty, Manetho's [el]eventh, some account can be given.

FOURTH HISTORICAL DYNASTY (or Eleven[th] Dynasty of Manetho).

Abt. B.C.	Native Name.	Greek form of Name.	Length of Dynasty.	Monuments.
	1. Antef I.	None		Inscription on Coffin.
	2. Mentuho-tep I.	Do.		Mentioned in Table of Karnak.
2200	3. Antef II. (the Great)	Do.	About	Tablet from Tomb.
to	4. Mentuho-tep II.	Do.	a	Inscription at Konosso. Tablet at Hammamat.
2100	5. Antef III.	Do.	Century.	Mentioned in Table of Karnak.
	6. Mentuho-tep III.	Do.		Tablets at Hammamat.
	7. Sankh-kara	Sencheres		Inscription on [...] Hannu.

Commerce flourished under this dynasty. Mentu-hotep II. encouraged a land traffic between Coptos and the Red Sea coast, and Sankh-kara established a trade by sea with the "land of Punt" (either Arabia Felix or the Somauli country). Conquests were also made by some of the kings, especially by the fourth, who "subdued thirteen foreign nations." Pyramid building was simplified and then given up, the monarchs contenting themselves with unpretentious sepulchres in the rocks bordering the Nile valley. The "second Egyptian civilisation" was utilitarian and beneficent, consisting in the encouragement of trade and commerce, the establishment and improvement of commercial routes, the digging of wells, the formation of reservoirs, the protection of the roads by troops, the building of ships, and the exploration of hitherto unknown seas. Much attention was at the same time paid to the breeding of dogs; and Antef II., the third king, placed the likenesses of four upon his tomb, each of them representing a distinct type. The dynasty seems to have ended in bloodshed and confusion, and was succeeded by a time of general anarchy and disturbance, which was brought to a close by the

FIFTH HISTORICAL DYNASTY.

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FIFTH HISTORICAL DYNASTY (or Twelfth Dynasty of Manetho).

Abt. B.C.	Native Name.	Greek form of Name.	Length of Reign.	Monuments.
	1. Amen-em-hat I.	Ammenemes	30 years	Tablets at Mokattam and Hammamat. Name on Statues.
	2. Usertasen I.	Sesortosis	35 years	Obelisks at Heliopolis and in the Fayoum, &c.
2090	3. Amen-em-hat II.	Ammenemes	35 years	Tablets at Magharah and Sarabit-el-Khadim.
to	4. Usertasen II.	Sesortosis	13 years	Tomb of Khnum-hotep.
1900	5. Usertasen III.	Sesortosis	26 years	Tablets at Semneh and Hammamat.
	6. Amen-em-hat III.	Ammenemes	42 years	Tablets at Magharah, Sarabit-el-Khadim, and Hammamat. Nilometer at Semneh, &c.
	7. Amen-em-hat IV.	Ammenemes	9 years	Tablets at Magharah, Sarabit-el-Khadim, and the Fayoum.

This dynasty was the most distinguished that had hitherto reigned in Egypt. It extended Egyptian dominion on three sides—into South-West Asia, where the Sakti were reduced to subjection; into North-West Africa, where Amen-em-hat I. conquered the Maxyes;

and into Ethiopia, where the limits of the empire were formally advanced by Usertasen III., who established forts and garrisons at Koomeh and Semneh. It continued the beneficent policy of the preceding dynasty, encouraged trade, promoted irrigation, and almost doubled the productive power of Egypt by its engineering works in the Nile Valley and the Fayoum. In architecture it made some advances of importance, constructing temples on a larger scale than had been known previously, and introducing the obelisk as a main ornamentation of such buildings. Luxury, however, increased under its influence, and though it seems to have united Egypt once more into a single kingdom, yet Egypt rather lost than gained in strength under its rule, and the way was paved for that subjugation of the country beneath a foreign yoke, which took place under the succeeding dynasty—the last of the "Old Empire."

Sixth Historical Dynasty (or Thirteenth Dynasty of Manetho).

Thebes, after the close of the great dynasty of the Usertasens and Amen-em-hats, appears to have been reduced to a state of struggle and anarchy. The "sixty kings" which Manetho assigns to his thirteenth dynasty seem to have been pretenders, who disputed for the crown, and who often enjoyed it only for a few months or a few days. The foreigners who ruled Egypt during the "Middle Empire" had perhaps begun their

invasion before the time of the Amen-em-hats came to an end. At any rate, they must be regarded as contemporary with the Shabak-hoteps of this (thirteenth) dynasty, and as masters of Lower Egypt, while a struggle for power was still going on in Thebes.

Third Period (continued). Contemporary Monarchy in Babylonia. (About B.C. 2500 to B.C. 1700).

Monarchy seems to have been established in Babylonia as early as in Egypt. The Cushite Kingdom of Nimrod is the first which is noticed in Scripture (Gen. x., 10). The Babylonian remains contain no distinct mention of it, but they show that from a time at least as early as B.C. 2500, there had been kings in Babylonia, kings who were often contemporaries and held their courts in different cities, the chief of them being Ur, Erech, Agade or Agane, Larsa, Karrak, and Babylon. At Ur reigned, before B.C. 2000, five kings: Urukh, Ilgi or Dungi, Su-Agu, Amar-Agu, and Ibil-Agu; at Larsa, about the same time, four kings: Nur-Rimmon, Gasin, Sin-iddina, and Rim-Agu or Eri-aku (Arioch). A little later there was a dynasty of four or five kings at Karrak, namely, Gamil-Adar, Libit-Nana, Ismi-dagon, Gungunu, and Isbi-barra. Between B.C. 2280 and B.C. 1900, Elamitic kings were paramount in some portions of the country, having established their authority by force of arms, and sometimes by the same means extending their sway into Syria. Among these kings the most important were

Kudur-Nakhunta, Kudur-Lagamar (Chedor-laomer), and Kudur-Mabuk. Chedor-laomer came into contact with Abraham. The Babylonians themselves claimed to have had kings of their own from about B.C. 2230, and there is evidence of the rule of powerful monarchs in the country during the continuance of the old Egyptian period. Among these the most remarkable was Khammurabi, famous for his great canal. The two following dynasties belong mainly to this period :—

FIRST BABYLONIAN DYNASTY, according to the native records.

About B.C.	Native Name of Kings.	Length of Reign.
	1. Sumu-abi	15 years.
	2. Sumula-ilu	35 years.
	3. Zabu	14 years.
2230	4. Apil-Sin	18 years.
	5. Sin-Muballit	30 years.
to	6. Khammurabi	45 years.
	7. Samshu-iluna	35 years.
1936	8. Ebisum	25 years.
	9. Ammi-satana	25 years.
	10. Ammisadugga	21 years.
	11. Samshu-satana	31 years.

SECOND BABYLONIAN DYNASTY, according to the native records.

About B.C.	Native Name of Kings.	Length of Reign.
	1. Anman	51 years.
	2. Ki-anni-bi	55 years.
	3. Damki-ilisu	46 years.
1936	4. Iski-pal	15 years.
	5. Sussi-akhi	27 years.
to	6. Gul-kisar	55 years.
	7. Kirgal-daramas	50 years.
1568	8. Adara-kalama	28 years.
	9. Akurdu-anna	26 years.
	10. Melamma-kurkura	6 years.
	11. Ea-gamil	9 years.

FOURTH PERIOD.

[T]HE CLOSE OF THE OLD EGYPTIAN EMPIRE [(AB]OUT B.C. 1900) TO THE COMMENCEMENT OF THE

New Empire (about B.C. 1700). Time of the Middle Empire, or that of the Shepherd Kings (Hyksos).

According to Africanus, Manetho asserted that three dynasties of Shepherd Kings had ruled over Egypt, and had exercised their authority for nearly a thousand years. But the monuments show no trace of any dynasty but one—a dynasty of six kings, whose joint reigns can scarcely have occupied more than two centuries.

Seventh Historical Dynasty (or Seventeenth of Manetho).

Abt. B.C.	Native Name of Kings.	Greek form of Name.	Supposed Length of Reign.	Monuments.
	1. Set	Saïtes	19 years	Tablet found at San.
1900	2. Unknown	Bnôn	40 years	s.
	3. Unknown	Pachnan	36 years	s.
to	4. Unknown	Staan	50 years	;.
1700	5. Unknown	Archles	49 years	
	6. Apepi	Apophis	61 years	Inscriptions a First Sallie

The native country of these monarchs was certainly in Asia, and it is thought most probable that they belonged to the nation of the Hittites. They invaded Egypt from the Isthmus of Suez, and carrying all before them, ravaged the Nile valley from one end to the other, massacred the adult male population, enslaved the women and children, burnt the cities, destroyed the records, and demolished the temples. They established their court at Memphis, and at Tanis in the Delta, and gradually became Egyptianised, building temples in the Egyptian fashion, wearing the Egyptian dress, and employing the Egyptian language and the hieroglyphic character in their inscriptions. Their principal temple was that of Sutech or Set at Tanis, which they adorned with special magnificence, fetching syenite and other rare materials for its ornamentation from Assouan. They set up colossal statues of themselves, employed the sphinx as a religious emblem, and otherwise conformed to Egyptian habits. In religion, however, they were monotheistic, worshipping no God but Set or Sutech, and finally, under Apepi, issuing an edict that the native Egyptians should conform to the same usage. This edict produced a revolt. The Shepherds had allowed a tributary native dynasty to establish itself at Thebes during the later period of their dominion. This dynasty affected the name of Ra-Sekenen, and under the third monarch of that name revolted against the foreign yoke. War followed, and ultimately the native Egyptians were victorious, expelled the Shepherds, and

established what is known as "The New Empire," under a king called Aahmes (Amosis). Joseph is said to have been the chief minister of Apepi.

FIFTH PERIOD.

FROM THE COMMENCEMENT OF THE "NEW EMPIRE" UNDER AAHMES (ABOUT B.C. 1700) TO THE ESTABLISHMENT OF THE PERSIAN DOMINION BY CYRUS AND CAMBYSES (B.C. 558-527).

A.—HISTORY OF EGYPT.

The dynasty which expelled the Shepherds (Hyksos) and set up a new native monarchy at Thebes was the most warlike and the most magnificent that the world had as yet known. It consisted of ten kings and a queen, besides certain pretenders who failed to establish themselves, and is thought to have held the throne for the space of nearly three centuries.

EIGHTH HISTORICAL DYNASTY (or Eighteenth of Manetho).

Abt. B.C.	Native Name of Kings.	Greek form of Name.	Supposed Length of Reign.	Monuments.
	1. Aahmes	Amosis	25 years	Rock Tablets at Toom and Maasara. Tomb of Officer.
	2. Amen-hotep I.	Amenophis	24 years	Tomb of Officer.
	3. Thothmes I.	Tuthmosis	22 years	Tablet from El-Kaab, and Tomb of Officer.
	4. Thothmes II.	Tuthmosis	13 years	Tablet from El-Kaab, &c.
1700	5. Hatasu (Queen)		20 years	Inscriptions on Temple at El-Assasif.
	6. Thothmes III.	Tuthmosis	40 years	Inscriptions at Karnak. Scarabæi at Arban, &c.
to	7. Amen-hotep II.	Amenophis	31 years	Inscriptions at Thebes, Amada, Koummeh, &c.
1400	8. Thothmes IV.	Tuthmosis	8 years	Inscriptions at Thebes and Amada.
	9. Amen-hotep III.	Amenophis	36 years	Great Colossi. Inscriptions at Thebes, Soleb, Arban, &c.
	10. Amen-hotep IV. (Khu-enaten)	Amenophis	20 (?) years	Tablet at Silsilis, and Inscriptions at Tel-el-Amarna.
	Saanekht, Ai, Tutankh-amen }		30 (?) years	Tablets of Officers and Pylon of Horus.
	11. Hor-em-heb	Horus	36 years	Inscriptions at Silsilis, Statue at Turin, &c.

The most important sovereigns of this dynasty were *Aahmes*, who expelled the Shepherds, reconquered the negro tribes of the south, and repaired the various temples which the Shepherd kings had injured; *Thothmes I.*, who was the first king to carry his arms deep into Asia, to conquer Syria, and invade Mesopotamia; *Hatasu*, his daughter, who directed affairs during the entire reign of her brother, Thothmes II., and the earlier portion of that of her other brother, Thothmes III.; *Thothmes III.*, who warred in Ethiopia, Arabia, Syria and Western Mesopotamia, and is thought to have taken tribute from Nineveh and Babylon; *Amen-hotep III.*, who erected the two great sitting colossi at Karnak, one of which became known as "The Vocal Memnon," and built the temple of Ammon at Luxor, while he maintained the conquests of Thothmes III., both in the north and in the south; *Amen-hotep IV.* (Khuenaten), who introduced the worship of the solar disk; and *Hor-em-heb* (Horus), who restored the ancient religion after a long struggle with various pretenders.

The crown passed without any interval of confusion from the eighth historical dynasty to the ninth, which consisted of seven kings and a queen, who reigned conjointly with her husband. The space of time occupied by the dynasty was probably about a hundred and twenty years.

NINTH HISTORICAL DYNASTY (or Nineteenth of Manetho).

Abt. B.C.	Native Name of Kings.	Greek form of Name.	Supposed Length of Reign.	Monuments.
	1. Ramessu I.	Ramesses	1 year	Tablet at Wady Halfa.
	2. Seti I.	Sethos	25 years	Great Temple at Karnak, &c.
	3. Ramessu II.	Ramesses	67 years	Ditto ditto
1400	4. Menephthah	Ameneph-thes	10 (?) years	Tablets at Silsilis and Sourarieh, Great Temple of Karnak, &c.
1280	5. Seti II. (or Seti-Mene-phthah)	Sethos	2 (?) years	Tablets at Silsilis and Abu-Simbel.
	6. Amon-mes	Ammene-mes	1 year	Tablets at Medinet-abu, Tomb at Biban-el moluk.
	7. Siphthah and 8. Ta-user	Thuoris	7 years	Tablets at Silsilis, Karnak, and elsewhere.

Two of the earlier monarchs of the dynasty, Seti I. and his son Ramesses II., were among the most distinguished kings that Egypt ever knew. Seti I., who is probably the Sesostris of Herodotus and Diodorus,

reconquered Syria, which had revolted after the deatl of Amen-hotep III., and contended with the Arabs, the Hittites, the Libyans, the Tahai on the borders of Cilicia, the Cushites, and the people of Western Mesopotamia. He built the great pillared hall of Karnak, and constructed for himself in the rocks near Thebes the most beautiful of all the royal tombs. He built temples at Kurnah, Abydos, El-Kaab, Redesieh, and Beni-Hassan. He began the construction of the freshwater canal between the Nile and the Red Sea, strengthened the eastern frontier of Egypt by a wall, and erected at least one obelisk. He reigned probably above 30 years, but associated on the throne his son, Ramesses II., at an early age, and thenceforward gave him a full share in the direction of affairs. Ramesses II. was less warlike than his father, but a still greater builder. He pushed his arms into Upper Ethiopia and the Soudan further than any of his predecessors, and carried on an important war with the Hittites in Syria, his exploits in which were celebrated by the poet Pentaour. But the peace which he concluded with the Hittites in his 21st year on terms of exact equality left them the supremacy in Asia, and his African conquests by no means compensated for his Asiati losses. As a military power Egypt declined from his day. In architecture, however, and in "great works" of many kinds, Ramesses distinguished himself above all other Egyptian kings. He completed the Rames-seum, which his father had begun, built the cities of

Tum (Pithom) and Pa-Ramessu (Rameses), finished he canal between the Nile and the Red Sea, completed he protection of Egypt on the east by a great wall, carved he magnificent rock temple of Abu-Simbel, added pylons id colossi to the temple of Phthah at Memphis, adorned e temples of Thebes and Heliopolis with obelisks, id everywhere covered the walls of his buildings with ulptured bas-reliefs of great beauty and delicacy. he forced labour of prisoners of war and of subject ces was employed in these constructions, as well as 1 those of Seti I., these two kings being the main ppressors of the Israelites in Egypt, according to the elief of those best acquainted with the Egyptian nonuments. Ramesses II. was succeeded by his son Menephthah, probably the Pharaoh of the Exodus, who after repulsing an attack of the Libyans on his north-western frontier, lost the main strength of his army in his pursuit of the Israelites, and became then involved n struggles with pretenders, ending his reign inglori-ously. The remaining princes of the dynasty, Seti II. or Seti-Menephthah, sometimes called Menephthah II., Amon-mes, and Siphthah, were undistinguished, and ppear to have reigned, each of them, only a few years.

The succeeding dynasty consisted of thirteen nonarchs, one of whom only was a powerful prince, while the rest were insignificant. The space of time covered by the dynasty was probably about a hundred and eighty years.

TENTH HISTORICAL DYNASTY (or Twentieth Dynasty Manetho).

Abt. B.C.	Native Name of Kings.	Greek form of Name.	Supposed Length of Reign.	Monuments.
	1. Set-nekht	Unknown	3 (?) years	Tablet at Medin Abu.
	2. Ramessu III.	Ramesses	35 (?) years	Inscriptions at Me net-Abu, &c.
	3. Ramessu IV.	Do.		Tablets at Hammama Tomb in Biban-e Moluk.
	4. Ramessu V. (Usurper)	Do.		Inscription at Silsilis.
1280	5. Ramessu VI. and	Do.		Tomb in Biban-e Moluk.
	6. Meritum	Unknown		
to	7. Ramessu VII. and	Ramesses		
1100	8. Ramessu VIII.	Do.		Tablet of Horus.
	9. Ramessu IX.	Do.	20 (?) years	Inscription of Amen hotep at Thebes.
	10. Ramessu X.	Do.		
	11. Ramessu XI.	Do.		
	12. Ramessu XII.	Do.	33 years	Tablet found at Karnak
	13. Ramessu XIII.	Do.	26 years	

A rapid decline characterised this period, a decline ilitary power, in morals, in artistic genius, and in e. Set-nekht raised Egypt from a condition of rchy, but reigned only a few years, and constructed great work. Ramesses III., his son, had a long reign, d was a vigorous prince. He repelled two formidable vasions, one by the Libyans on the north-west, and nother by the Tekaru (Teucri?) and others on the orth-east. After this he carried his arms into Asia, ver-ran Syria, and perhaps even invaded Mesopotamia. He built a magnificent temple at Medinet-Abu, pposite Thebes, encouraged trade, and made enormous fferings at the principal Egyptian shrines. He was ucceeded by five of his sons, who reigned conjointly or uccessively, but were all entirely undistinguished. These were followed by a grandson, Ramesses IX., in whose time power began to pass from the crown to the igh priests of Ammon at Thebes. The monarchs ank into *fainéants*, and about B.C. 1100 were wholly set aside by the sacerdotal order, who constituted the

ELEVENTH HISTORICAL DYNASTY.

ELEVENTH HISTORICAL DYNASTY (or Twenty-firs[t] Dynasty of Manetho).

Abt. B.C.	Native Name of Kings.	Greek form of Name.	Supposed Length of Reign.	Monuments.
	1. Her-Hor (Si-ammon)	Smendes	26 years	Inscriptions at Karnak
1100	2. Pi-ankh (?)	Psusennes	2 (?) years	
	3. Pi-netem I.	Unknown	25 (?) years	
to	4. Men-khepr-ra	Do.		Inscriptions at Karnak Bricks from Kheb.
975	5. Pa-seb-en-sha	Psinaches	9 years	
	6. Pi-netem II.	Unknown		
	7. Hor-pa-seb-ensha	Do.		

The monarchs of this priestly line reigned first at Thebes, but afterwards at Tanis in the Delta. Her-Hor, the first of them, claims to have reduced to subjection the Ruten of N. Syria, but otherwise they engaged in no military expeditions. Nor did they attempt the erection of any buildings. Their pacific character

[ena]bled David to establish the empire which he be[que]athed to Solomon; and with Solomon they were [c]on[tent] to establish friendly relations. One of the later [kin]gs of the list must have allowed Solomon to marry [h]is daughter.

[TW]ELFTH HISTORICAL DYNASTY (or Twenty-second of Manetho).

[Abt. B.C.]	Native Name of Kings.	Greek form of Name.	Supposed Length of Reign.	Monuments.
	1. Sheshonk I.	Sesonchosis (Asychis)	21 years	Inscription at Karnak.
	2. Osarkon I.	Osochor		
	3. Takelut I.	Takelothis	2 (?) years	Apis stelæ.
	4. Osarkon II.	Osochor	22 years	Inscription of Sheshonk II. and Apis stelæ.
	5. Sheshonk II.	Sesonchosis	2 (?) years	
	6. Takelut II.	Takelothis	23 (?) years	
	7. Sheshonk III.	Sesonchosis	51 years	Apis stelæ.
	8. Pamai	Unknown	20 years	Do.
	9. Sheshonk IV.	Sesonchosis	36 years	Do.

The twenty-second dynasty of Manetho consisted nine kings, whose reigns probably covered a spac about two centuries and a quarter. Their names ha Semitic cast, and some writers have called th "Assyrians"; but there are no sufficient grounds fo regarding the dynasty as foreign. It held its court a Thebes, worshipped the old Egyptian deities, an followed all the old native customs. Sheshonk appears to be the "Shishak" of Scripture, who receiv Jeroboam at his court, and afterwards supported hi against Rehoboam. Osarkon II. is most probab "Zerah" (Zerach) who invaded Palestine with a hu army in the time of Asa, and suffered a complete defe The other monarchs were undistinguished, and l scarcely any monuments, being only known to us fr the Apis stelæ. Towards the close of the dynasty th was a disintegration of the empire, and rival dynast were established at Memphis and Tanis (Zoan). T Ethiopian kings of Napata at the same time began extend their sway over southern Egypt, and ultimat absorbed the kingdom of Thebes. The dynasty tablished at Tanis consisted of three or four kings, a formed the

THIRTEENTH HISTORICAL DYNASTY.

...ICAL DYNASTY (or Twenty-third ...asty of Manetho).

...	Greek form of Name.	Supposed Length of Reign.	Monuments.
...bast	Petubastes	40 years	
...sarkon III.	Osorcho	8 years	
... Psimut	Psammus	10 years	
... Seti (?)	Zet	31 years	None.

...hea, the last ... ...oked an Assy... ...gon in B.C. 720. ...t battle of Ra... ...ache) were ...ersary. S... ...er in B.C. ...ng in B.C. ...s avo...

Further disintegration having taken place, and Egypt ...g divided among at least seven princes, Piankhi, ...iopian king of Napata (Noph), about B.C. 750, es...ished a suzerainty over the whole country, making ... various princes his tributaries, but allowing them ...etain their royal titles and state. He ruled peace...y for twenty years, but in his twenty-first year the ...nces rebelled, and a desperate struggle followed. ...nkhi after a while re-established his authority; but ... long afterwards a second revolt occurred under a ...der called Bek-en-ranf (Bocchoris), which was more ...cessful, and Bocchoris became king of Egypt, forming ...is sole person the twenty-fourth dynasty of Manetho. ...er six years, however, the Ethiopians recovered their

ANCIENT HIST

power under Shabak (Sabaco), ... prisoner and put him to death. ...netho consisted ... dynasty consisted of six monarchs, ...overed a spac... of about a century. ...heir names ha... ve called th... ...nt grounds fo... its court a... ...leities, an... shonk ... ...ceiv...

FOURTEENTH HISTORICAL DYNASTY (or ... Dynasty of Manetho).

Abt. B.C.	Native Name of Kings.	Greek form of Name.	Supposed Length of Reign.	Monuments.
	1. Fiankhi		25 years	Great inscriptio... Napata.
750	2. Shabak	Sabacôs	12 years	Inscription at Ka... Apis stelæ, &c.
to	3. Shabatok	Sevechus	14 years	Statue found at M... phis, &c.
650	4. Tahrak	Taracus	31 years	Inscriptions at M... phis, Medinet-A... Thebes, &c.
	5. Rud-Amen		7 (?) years	
	6. Mi-amen-nut		10 (?) years	Inscriptions at M... phis.

Shabak (Sabaco) is thought to have been the "S... or "Seveh" of Scripture, who concluded a treaty w...

...hea, the last king of Israel (B.C. 724). He thus ...voked an Assyrian attack, which was made by ...gon in B.C. 720. The struggle was decided by the ...t battle of Raphia, in which the troops of Shabak ...ache) were completely defeated by those of his ...ersary. Shabatok, son of Shabak, succeeded his ...er in B.C. 712, and probably reigned fourteen years, ...ng in B.C. 698. He made submission to Sargon, and ...s avoided any hostile attack at his hands. He was ...ever, subordinate to Tahrak, who ruled at Napata, ... that monarch having made alliance with Hezekiah, ...g of Judah, Shabatok probably headed the army ...ich collected at Pelusium to resist the invasion of ...nacherib in B.C. 699. The miraculous destruction ...Sennacherib's host saved Egypt at this time, and ...rak, having become actual king of Egypt in B.C. 698, ...gned peaceably for twenty-six years, till B.C. 672, ...en Egypt was invaded by Esarhaddon, who over-ran ...whole land, and broke it up into twenty distinct ...nts, to which he appointed Egyptian and ...governors. Three years later, however, Tahrak ...blished his authority, and the struggle was re-...d and carried on with varying success during the ...mainder of the reign of Tahrak, which terminated ... 667, and during the brief reign of his step-son, Rud-...en, till about B.C. 660, when Mi-amen-nut, the ...cessor of Rud-amen, once more made Egypt an ...hiopian appanage. The native princes were, how-...r, still retained in their respective governments; and

it was not long before one of them, Psamatik, princ[e of] Sais, threw off the Ethopian yoke and re-establish[ed] native monarchy.

Fifteenth Historical Dynasty (or Twenty-six[th] Dynasty of Manetho).

B.C.	Native Name of Kings.	Greek form of Name.	Supposed Length of Reign.	Monuments.
655 (?)	1. Psamatik I.	Psammetichus	44 yrs. (?)	Inscriptions at The[bes], Memphis, &c. gallery at Sacca[ra]
611	2. Neku	Necôs	16 years	Inscriptions at The[bes], Sais, Hamma[mat], &c.
595	3. Psamatik II.	Psammis	5 yrs. 6 ms.	Inscriptions at [Ele]phantine, Ph[ilæ], Konosso, &c.
590	4. Ua-ap-ra	Apries or Uaphris	19 years	Obelisk at R[ome], Stelæ, &c.
571	5. Aahmes	Amasis	44 years	Inscript[ions at] Hamma[mat], &c.
527	6. Psamatik III.	Psammenitus	6 months	None.

A marked recovery of vigour characterises this l[ast] period of independent Egyptian history. Psamatik, [was] the son of a Neco, who had been appointed to [the] government of Sais and Memphis by Esarhaddon, [and was a]

man of great talent and energy. Associated by his [fa]ther in B.C. 666, he counted the years of his reign [fro]m that date; but it was not till about B.C. 655 that [he] really consolidated his power and established himself [as] king over the whole country. This he effected [o]nly by the help of Gyges, King of Lydia, who sent [h]is aid a number of Greek and Carian mercenaries. [Onc]e firmly fixed on the throne he adopted a new policy. [He f]avoured foreigners, especially the Greeks, encouraged [trad]e, and resumed the construction of "great works" [laid] aside since the time of the third Ramesses. Besides [rest]oring the temples at Thebes and Medinet-Abu, [whic]h had gone to decay, he adorned the great fane of [Pt]hah at Memphis, made a new burial place for the [Api]s bulls, and constructed buildings at Sais, Mendes, [Phil]æ, and Heliopolis. The bas-reliefs of his time have [gre]at beauty and delicacy. He warred with the Philis[tin]es and Phœnicians, took Ashdod, and became master [of] the whole Syrian coast as far as Aradus. Neku [(N]ecôs), who succeeded him, carried on his policy, and [his] conquests even further. Taking advantage [of the uns]ettled state of Western Asia after the fall of [Nineveh], he over-ran the whole region between Egypt [and th]e Euphrates, defeated Josiah at Megiddo, and [reduc]ed all Palestine and Syria to his dominions (B.C. 608). [Th]ree years later he was, however, defeated by Nebu[ch]adnezzar at the great battle of Carchemish, and [de]prived of his conquests. Neco attempted to reopen [th]e canal between the Nile and the Red Sea, had Africa

circumnavigated, and maintained fleets both in the Re
Sea and the Mediterranean. He was succeeded by h
son, Psamatik II., who was comparatively und
tinguished, reigning less than six years, and warr
only with the Ethiopians. Ua-ap-ra (Apries),
fourth king, son of Psamatik II., succeeded, and resu
the warlike policy of his grandfather. He assi
Zedekiah against Nebuchadnezzar, took Sidon,
contended at sea with the entire force of Phœnicia
Cyprus. He also made an expedition against
Greek city of Cyrene, which was unsuccessful. Acc
ing to Herodotus, this failure caused his deposit
but there is some doubt whether he was not r
defeated and deprived of his throne by Nebuchadnez
That monarch certainly invaded Egypt in B.C.
before Apries' death, and occupied for a time the en
territory. In B.C. 567 Aahmes (Amasis) became s
king. He probably reigned at first as a tributary ki
under Nebuchadnezzar, but from about B.C. 540
must have become completely independent. Egy
flourished under his sway; he encouraged art a
commerce, was very friendly towards the Greeks, a
conquered the island of Cyprus. Having entered, how
ever, into a tripartite treaty with Babylon and Lyd
he offended Cyrus, and was about to be attacked by t
whole force of Persia when he died. Psamatik III., h
son, succeeded, but within six months was defeated b
the Persians near Pelusium and soon afterwards p
to death. Egypt became a Persian province (B.C. 52

B.—History of Babylon.

third Babylonian dynasty held the throne, ac-
to the native records, for a period of about 500
during which, the number of kings was thirty-six.
the names of a few of these kings, at the
ing and towards the close of the dynasty, are
. See the subjoined table :—

Babylonian Dynasty, according to the native records.

at B.C.	Native Name of Kings.	Supposed Length of Reign.
	1. Kandis	16 years.
	2. Agumsi	22 years.
568	3. Aguâsi	22 years.
to	4. Ussi	8 years.
	5. Adu-melik	
238	6. Tasziumas	
	Fifteen Kings of whom nothing is known.	
	22. * * *	22 years.

THIRD BABYLONIAN DYNASTY (*continued*).

About B.C.	Native Name of Kings.	Supposed Length of Re[ign].
	23. * * *	26 yea[rs]
	24. * * *	17 yea[rs]
1238	25. Kara *	2 yea[rs]
	26. Gis-amme * * ti	6 yea[rs]
	27. Saga-saltiyas	13 yea[rs]
	28. * * *	8 yea[rs]
to	29. Bel-nadin-sum	1½ yea[rs]
	30. Kara-murdas	1½ year[s]
	31. Rimmon-nadin-sum	6 year[s]
1075	32. Rimmon-sum-nazir	30 year[s]
	33. Meli-sigu	15 years
	34. Marduk-bal-iddin	13 years
	35. Zagaga-nadin-sum	1 year.
	36. Bel-sum *	3 years

This dynasty was followed by one of eleven ki[ngs] whose united reigns amounted to no more than seve[nty-] two years and six months. The names of three [...] of the kings are preserved.

FOURTH BABYLONIAN DYNASTY.

[About] B.C.	Native Name of Kings.	Supposed Length of Reign.
	1. Marduk- * - *	17 years.
	2. * * *	6 years.
	3. Unknown	
	4. Do.	
	5. Do.	
	6. Do.	
	7. Do.	
[1]003	8. Do.	22 years.
	9. Marduk-nadin-(akhi)	1½ years.
	10. Marduk-zir- *	13 years.
	11. Nabu-nadin- *	9 years.

[Fr]equent wars between the kings of Babylonia and [Assy]ria occurred during this and the preceding period. [No g]reat impression was made by either nation on the [other], but upon the whole Assyria showed herself [supe]rior. Sometimes the Elamites joined in the [stru]ggle, which was almost continuous, but this third [Mes]opotamian monarchy was weaker than either of [the] others.

[T]he fifth and sixth dynasties consisted, each of

them, of three kings only, and were followed seventh (Elamite) dynasty, containing only a monarch.

Fifth Babylonian Dynasty.

About B.C.	Native Name of Kings.	Length of
1003 to 982	1. Simmas-sigu	18 ye
	2. Hea-mukin-ziri	5 mo
	3. Kassu-nadin-akhi	3 year

Sixth Babylonian Dynasty.

About B.C.	Native Name of Kings.	Length of R
982 to 961	1. Ulbar-sakin-sum	17 year
	2. Ninip-kudur-uzur	3 year
	3. Sukamuna	3 months

Seventh Babylonian Dynasty (Elamite).

About B.C. 961 to 955. * * * reigned 6 years

The dynasty which followed is said to have prised thirty-one kings, but the tablet which gave names had only room for eighteen, and the pe during which the dynasty occupied the throne scar allows of more.

Eighth Babylonian Dynasty.

B.C.	Native Name of Kings.	Length of Reign.
	1. Unknown	13 years.
	2. Do.	6 months.
	3. Do.	
	4. *Nabu-sum-iskun (?)	
	5. Unknown	
	6. Do.	
	7. *Tiglathi-Ninip (?)	
	8. *Rimmon-ṅadin-akhi (?)	
	9. *Nabu-pal-iddin (?)	
	10. *Marduk-bel-usate (?)	
	11. Unknown	
	12. *Marduk-balatsu-ikbi	
	13. Unknown	
2	14. Do.	
	15. Nabu-sum-iskun	
	16. Nabu-[naser]	14 years.
	17. Nabu-nadin-ziri	2 years.
	18. Nabu-sum-ukin	1 month.

3.—The kings whose names are marked by an asterisk must belonged to this dynasty; but their exact position in it is n.

The ninth Babylonian dynasty was one of si kings, partly native, partly Assyrian, and cove space of a hundred and seven years. The chron now becomes exact, and the history continuous.

NINTH BABYLONIAN DYNASTY.

B.C. B.C.	Native Name of Kings.	Greek form of Name.	Length of Reign.	Hebr of N
732—729	1. Ukin-zira	Chinzirus	3 years	
729—727	2. Pulu	Porus	2 years	Pul.
727—722	3. Ululâa	Elulæus	5 years	
722—710	4. Marduk-pal-iddin	Mardokempalus	12 years	Meroda Balad
710—705	5. Sargina	Arkeanus	5 years	Sargon.
705—703	6. Sin-akhi-irba	Sanacheribus	2 years	Sennach
703—703	7. Marduk-zakir-sum	Unknown.	1 month	
703—702	8. Marduk-pal-iddin	Mardokempalus	9 months	Merodac Balada
702—699	9. Bel-ibni	Belibus	3 years	
699—693	10. Asshur-nadin-sum	Assaranadius	6 years	
693—692	11. Nergal-usezib	Regibelus	1 yr. 6 ms.	
692—688	12. Musezib-marduk	Mesesi-mordachus	4 years	
688—680	13. Sin-akhi-irib	Sanacheribus	8 years	Sennach
680—667	14. Asshur-akh-iddin	Asaridinus	13 years	Esar-had
667—647	15. Samas-sum-ukin	Saosduchinus	20 years	
647—625	16. Kandal-anu	Chiniladanus	22 years	

Ukin-zira (Chinzirus), the founder of t dynasty, was attacked by Tiglath-pileser II., Assyria, in his fourth year, and after a short st succumbed. The Assyrian monarch proclaimed him King of Babylon, and reigned for two years under th name of Pulu (Pul), when he died. Shalmaneser IV. succeeded him, and reigned at Babylon as Ululâa (Elulæus). When Shalmaneser was driven from his throne by Sargon, Babylon revolted under a native monarch, Marduk-pal-iddin (Merodach-Baladan), and maintained her independence for twelve years, but in B.C. 710 was forced to submit to Sargon, who took the royal title, and reigned as King of Babylon till his death in B.C. 705. Sennacherib, his successor, was acknowledged as sovereign for two years, but in B.C. 703 Babylon again revolted under a king called Marduk-zakir-sum, who, however, reigned only a month, when he was superseded by Merodach-Baladan. This prince, now monarch for the second time, held the throne for nine months, when Sennacherib drove him out, and established an Assyrian viceroy, Bel-ibni (Belibus), as ruler. But this ruler soon displeased him, and was recalled in B.C. 699, his place being taken by Asshur-nadin-sum, Sennacherib's eldest son, who after a reign of six years was defeated and made prisoner by the Elamites.

An Elamite viceroy was then set up, who bore the

Nergal-usezib (Regibelus), and reigned for a
[illegible]d a half, when he died a natural death.

The Babylonians thereupon placed themselves under a native monarch, Musezib-Marduk (Mesesimordachus), who held the crown for four years, when the Elamites took him prisoner and sent him to Nineveh. Sennacherib's authority was now once more acknowledged, and he reigned over Babylon in his own name from B.C. 688 to B.C. 680.

Assyrian authority was now fully established in the lower country. Sennacherib remained king of Babylonia till his death, and was succeeded by his son, Esar-haddon, who built himself a palace at Babylon and frequently resided there. In B.C. 667 Asshur-bani-pal, Esar-haddon's son and successor, established his brother, Samas-sum-ukin (Saos-duchinus or Sammughes), as viceroy, and maintained him in his position until B.C. 647, when Samas-sum-ukin joined with the Elamites against his suzerain and was punished with death. Asshur-bani-pal then either set up a new viceroy or reigned in person under the name of Kandalanu (Chiniladanus) for twenty-two years, when he was defeated and slain by the combined Medes and Babylonians at Nineveh, and Babylonian independence was once more re-established.

TENTH BABYLONIAN DYNASTY. Period of the [illegible]

B.C. B.C.	Native Name of Kings.	Greek form of Name.	L'ngth of Reign.	Hebrew fo[illegible] of Name.
625—604	1. Nabu-pal-uzur	Nabopolassar	21 yrs.	
604—561	2. Nabu-kudur-uzur	Nabuchodrossorus	43 yrs.	Nebuchadnezzar
561—559	3. Amil-marduk	Illoarudamus	2 yrs.	Evil-merodach
559—555	4 Nergal-sar-uzur	Neriglissarus	4 yrs.	Nergal-sharezer
555—555	5. Irib-akhi-marduk	Labossorachus	9 ms.	
555—538	6. Nabu-nahid	Nabonadius	17 yrs.	
538—538	7. Bel-sar-uzur		4 ms.	Belshazzar

Nabopolassar is said to have been appointed by the last Assyrian king to crush a revolt in Babylonia, but to have placed himself at its head and so made himself independent. Having assisted Cyaxares in the conquest of Assyria, he received as his reward, the western Assyrian provinces—the Euphrates Valley, Syria, Phœnicia, and Palestine—and thus founded the "Empire." Attacked by Neco in B.C. 608, he was defeated, and lost the territory west of the great river. This, however, his son Nebuchadnezzar, recovered in B.C. 605, by his victory at Carchemish, shortly before his

…th. Nebuchadnezzar then held the crown …three years, and carried Babylonian glory to …test height. He took Tyre after a long siege, …oyed Jerusalem, led the Jewish people into captivity, …d over-ran Egypt. Elam appears to have submitted to him. His architectural and other works were of surpassing grandeur. He rebuilt almost all the Babylonian temples, constructed a new palace at Babylon, a great reservoir, and the "Hanging Gardens," reckoned among the "Seven Wonders of the World." He united the Tigris and Euphrates by means of the Nahr Malka (Royal river), excavated a canal which, quitting the Euphrates at Hit, was carried along the western edge of the alluvium to the Persian Gulf, built quays and piers along the shores of the Gulf, and established a port (Teredon) near the mouth of the great river. Babylonian civilisation was at its acmé during his reign. Bricks were baked of an excellent quality, and mortar made equal to the best Roman; and with these materials huge structures were erected, some of which remain to the present day. Temple towers were built in several stages, and carried to an elevation of (perhaps) 200 feet. Bricks were enamelled and gilt. The walls of palaces were by these means rendered beautiful, being adorned with war scenes and hunting scenes, which were life-like and spirited. Commerce flourished, and Babylon became emphatically "a city of merchants." The study of astromony was pursued with zeal and industry. Observations were made and care-

fully recorded. The sky was mapped out… constellations, and the fixed stars were catalog… Time was accurately measured by means of sun-dials and other astronomical instruments were probably invented. The astronomy of the Babylonians was, however, largely mixed with astrology; magic received much attention; a debasing idolatry formed the only religion; and the state of morals which prevailed was corrupt in the extreme. Nebuchadnezzar was succeeded by his son Amil-Marduk (or Evil-Merodach), who, after reigning two years, was murdered by Neriglissar, his brother-in-law. Neriglissar held the throne for four years, when he died a natural death, leaving the crown to his son Irib-akhi-Marduk (or Labossorachus), who reigned nine months and was then murdered by conspirators. These persons placed Nabu-nahid (Nabonadius or Labynetus) on the throne. Nabunahid found his position one of great difficulty. Persia was growing in power and threatening all her neighbours. He had himself religious views which offended many of his subjects. Egypt was aggressive on his western frontier, and Syria was restless under his yoke. He had not reigned very long when he thought it best to associate his son Bel-shar-uzur (or Belshazzar) with him in the government, and to commit to him the command of the army. Attacked by Cyrus in his twelfth year, he resisted till his seventeenth, when Cyrus defeated him, took him prisoner, and laid siege to Babylon. The defence was conducted by

...zzar, who threw himself into the inner fortified ...osure, which contained the royal palace and the great temple of Bel-Merodach. Here he resisted for four months, but was at last overcome and slain. Nabonadius died soon afterwards in captivity.

C.—History of Elam.

There are no materials for constructing a continuous history of Elam; but its position during the Third and Fourth Periods, as one of the great powers of the world, seems to entitle it to separate consideration. Elam was a monarchy of importance from at least B.C. 2280, when its first known monarch, Kudur-Nakhunta, sacked Erech, and carried off from it the image of Nana. In the time of Abraham (B.C. 2000—1900) another Elamite king, Kudur-Lagamar (Chedor-laomer), was lord paramount over Southern Mesopotamia, and for a time extended his sway into Syria and Palestine. A third Elamite monarch, Kudur-Mabuk, belongs also to this early period; he has generally been placed at a later date than Chedor-laomer, but it is quite possible that his reign belongs to the interval between that monarch and Kudur-Nakhunta. He ruled over a portion of Babylonia about the time of Khammurabi (B.C. 2073), and gave his son Rim-agu (Arioch?) a principality in

... region. He calls himself in his inscrip... ...nqueror of Syria."

After this a long blank occurs in Elamite history, ...nd it is not till about B.C. 1200 that we have any further mention of Elamite monarchs. Then, however, we find the Elamites making frequent raids into Babylonia, and sometimes carrying all before them. Kudur-Nakhunta II. contended with Bel-zakin-iskun, King of Babylon, about B.C. 1190, and swept his country like a flood, leaving a terrible memory behind him. Two centuries later a monarch, name unknown, actually conquered the country, and for six years (about B.C. 961—955) was acknowledged as "King of Babylon."

Another long blank now occurs, and it is not till the time of Sargon (B.C. 722) that Elam falls again under our notice. She is still a power almost on an equality with Assyria and Babylon, but generally in alliance with the latter state. Sargon, in B.C. 721, wars with Elam, which is under a king called Umman-nigas, who is the ally of Merodach-Baladan. Umman-nigas is defeated and is not heard of again. In B.C. 718 he is succeeded by his nephew, Sutruk-Nakhunta, who continues the alliance with Babylon, and in B.C. 711 is attacked by Sargon, and very severely handled. He reigns eighteen years, but in B.C. 700 is deposed by his brother, Khullusu, who makes himself king, but in B.C. 694 is in his turn deposed by his subjects, who place on... ...med Maut-

throne a third Kudur-Nakhunta. This monarch contended with Sennacherib, but was defeated, and after a reign of ten months killed by his own subjects, who gave the crown to his brother, Umman-minan. This king was successful in war both against the Assyrians and the Babylonians. He defeated the former at Khalule, and conquered the latter, taking the reigning monarch, Musezib-marduk (Mesesi-mordachus), prisoner, and sending him as a present to Sennacherib (B.C. 692). In the same year he died, and Umman-aldas succeeded and reigned for eight years in peace, when a second Umman-aldas succeeded him. This prince was contemporary with Esar-haddon, and lived on friendly terms with him, while he invaded and plundered Babylonia. After reigning five years he was put to death by his brother, Urtaki, who usurped the throne, and maintained friendly relations with the Assyrians for about ten years, when he went to war with them, on what pretext is uncertain (about B.C. 660). Having died soon after, he was succeeded by his brother, Temin-Umman, who continued the Assyrian war, having for his adversary, Asshur-bani-pal, the son of Esar-haddon. Fortune favoured the Assyrians, who defeated Temin-Umman repeatedly, took him prisoner, and put him to death; after which they placed Umman-igas, a son of Urtaki, as viceroy, upon the throne. But it was not long before this prince revolted and joined in alliance with the Babylonians, who were endeavouring to throw off the Assyrian yoke. The struggle between Elam and

Assyria continued till far on in the reign of Asshur-bani-pal; and during its continuance we find the names of three more Elamite kings, Tammarit, son of Umman-igas, Indabigas, a usurper, and Umman-aldas III., probably a member of the old royal family (about B.C. 640); the last two of whom court the favour of the Assyrian monarch.

Little more is known of Elam. It is thought to have been conquered and added to his other dominions by Nebuchadnezzar (about B.C. 580—570), and was certainly made a portion of the Persian Empire by Cyrus, about B.C. 550. It was as "King of Ansan" (Elam), that Cyrus made war on Nabonadius. Susa, the Elamitic capital, became the main capital of Persia.

D.—History of the Khita, or Hittites.

73. The Hittites are first heard of as a nation in the time of Abraham (B.C. 2000–1900), when they appear as the Beni-Heth (Gen. xxiii., 3—20). They are then lords paramount of Southern Palestine. Subsequently they retire northwards, and it is not till the reign of Ramesses I. over Egypt that we again meet with them. Ramesses contended with a Hittite monarch called Sap-lel, who may be placed about B.C. 1400. His son, Seti I., was contemporary with a king named Maut-

-, and warred with him about B.C. 1390, obtaining tain successes, but eventually concluding a peace with im on equal terms. Maut-enar was succeeded by Khitasir, grandson of Sap-lel, who carried on the war with Seti's son, Ramesses II., for several years, at the end of which he concluded a solemn treaty with the Egyptian monarch, to whom soon after he gave his daughter in marriage. Friendly relations were thus firmly established between the two powers, and these continued uninterrupted until the reign of Ramesses III. (about B.C. 1270). This king once more attacked the Hittites in their own country, and probably reduced them to temporary subjection. The yoke, however, was soon shaken off; and in the time of Solomon (B.C. 1000—975) we find the Hittites a flourishing independent people, ruled by numerous kings, and engaged in commerce with the people of Israel (1 Kings x., 29). It was somewhat earlier than this, about B.C. 1130, that the Hittites first came into contact with the Assyrians. Tiglath-pileser I. at that time invaded their territories, and reduced several of their tribes to subjection; but the nation had at this time an extended dominion, reaching deep into Asia Minor, and speedily recovered itself, when Tiglath-pileser's reign was at an end. It was not till nearly three centuries later (about B.C. 880) that their independence was seriously threatened by the kings of Nineveh, who about that date began the series of conquests which carried them ultimately, on the one hand to Egypt, and on the other to Babylon and Susa.

Asshur-izir-pal took Carchemish, the northern H[illegible]d capital, about B.C. 876, and forced its king, Sangura, [to] become his tributary. Shalmaneser II., his son, ma[de] war on the southern Hittites, whose territory bordered on that of Damascus, and defeated them in several battles. By the time of Tiglath-pileser II. (B.C. 745—728) Hittite independence was altogether a thing of the past, the whole of Syria being absorbed into the great Assyrian Empire, and the very name of the nation passing into oblivion.

E.—History of Assyria.

The origin of the Assyrian Empire is wrapped in obscurity. According to Genesis x., 11, Asshur, or the Assyrian nation, "went out" from Babylonia at a very early date, and settled in the region towards the north of Babylonia, where they built three great cities—Nineveh, Resen and Calah. In the native records there appear to be traces of a time when the country was under the dominion of Babylon, and ruled by *patesi*, or viceroys, who derived their authority from Babylonian monarchs. The earliest known Assyrian king is a certain Asshur-bel-nisi-su, who warred with a Babylonian monarch of the third dynasty, called Kara-indas. The date commonly assigned to these princes is "about the middle of the fifteenth century," or B.C. 1450: but it is thought by some that this date is too high. The

Assyrian dynasty may, however, provisionally be [illegible]rded as having commenced about B.C. 1450, and as [illegible]aving occupied the throne for about 230 years—from B.C. 1450 to B.C. 1220. The monarchs of this dynasty are ten in number.

FIRST ASSYRIAN DYNASTY of ten kings.

Abt. B.C.	Native Name of Kings.	Abt. B.C.	Native Name of Kings.
	1. Asshur-bel-nisi-su.		6. Vul-nirari I.
1450	2. Buzur-asshur.	1350	7. Salman-uzur I.
to	3. Asshur-ubalit.	to	8. Tiglathi-ninip I.
1350	4. Bel-nirari.	1220	9. Vul-nirari II.
	5. Pud-il.		10. Bel-kudur-uzur.

These kings were mostly engaged in wars with the contemporary Babylonian monarchs, which were sometimes successful, at other times disastrous. Bel-nirari placed a king on the Babylonian throne, and Tiglathi-ninip claims to have conquered Babylon and reigned there in his own person. Bel-kudur-uzur, however, the last king, was defeated by the Babylonian monarch of his time and killed in the battle. A new dynasty was then set up, possibly under Babylonian influence.

SECOND ASSYRIAN DYNASTY of six kings.

Abt. B.C.	Native Name of Kings.	Abt. B.C.	Native Name of Kings.
1220	1. Ninip-pal-esar.	1155	4. Asshur-ris-ilim.
to	2. Asshur-dayan.	to	5. Tiglathi-pal-esar I.
1155	3. Mutaggil-Nabu.	1090	6. Asshur-bel-kala.

War with Babylonia continued. Asshur-ris-ilim contended with a Babylonian prince who bore the name of Nebuchadnezzar (Nabu-kudur-uzur), and Tiglath-pileser with his son, Marduk-iddin-akhi, whom he severely chastised, even capturing Babylon. This prince was the greatest of the early Assyrian monarchs, and is the only one who has left us an inscription of any considerable length. The cylinder of Tiglath-pileser I. gives a long account of his conquests, his hunting expeditions, and his repairs of temples. He appears to have carried his arms over the entire region between the Zagros range and the Mediterranean, Mount Niphates and central Babylonia. His capital city bore the name of Asshur, and is identified with the modern Kileh-Sherghat. Asshur-bel-kala, the son and successor of Tiglath-pileser, continued the war with Babylon, but was an undistinguished prince. He is the last known monarch of the dynasty.

A gap occurs [illegible] this point in the Assyrian annals,

...t is not till a century and a half have passed away ...t we again come upon a line of consecutive kings, and upon something like a continuous history. The Assyrian Eponym Canon, together with the monuments from Kileh-Sherghat and Calah, furnish us with ten monarchs for this period, whose reigns cover the space from about B.C. 930 to B.C. 745. Exact chronology begins with the accession of the second king, who came to the throne in B.C. 911, according to the Assyrian dates.

THIRD ASSYRIAN DYNASTY, of ten kings.

B.C. B.C.	Native Name of Kings.	Length of Reign.
930—911	1. Asshur-dayan II.	19 (?) years
911—891	2. Vul-nirari III.	20 years
891—885	3. Tiglathi-ninip II.	6 years
885—860	4. Asshur-izir-pal	25 years
860—825	5. Shalman-uzur II.	35 years
825—811	6. Samsi-Vul	14 years
811—782	7. Vul-nirari IV.	29 years
782—771	8. Shalman-uzur III.	11 years
771—753	9. Asshur-dayan III.	18 years
753—745	10. Asshur-nirari	8 years

The first important monarch of this series... Asshur-izir-pal, or Asshur-nazir-pal, as he is now calle... by many. Asshur-izir-pal fixed his court at Calah (Nimrud), and there built himself a magnificent palace, which he adorned with the bas-reliefs that now occupy the two principal Assyrian galleries in the British Museum. These reliefs have great spirit, boldness, an... force; occasionally they show real artistic merit in the design; but they are clumsy in the drawing and somewhat coarse in the execution. Asshur-izir-pal was also a great conquerer. Assyria during the time of depression (B.C. 1090 to 930) had shrunk back to her ancient limits. Asshur-izir-pal established her dominion once more over the entire region between the eastern ranges of Zagros and the Mediterranean, over Southern Armenia, over Northern and Central Mesopotamia, over the Hittite country, over Syria, and over Phœnicia. Tyre, Sidon, Byblus, and Aradus submitted to him. In the Euphrates valley he reduced the Shuites, and inflicted a severe defeat on Nabu-pal-iddina, king of Babylon, who assisted them (B.C. 879). He was succeeded (B.C. 860) by his son, Shalmaneser II., who was almost equally distinguished. In his long reign of 35 years he conducted in person no fewer than twenty-three military expeditions, besides entrusting three or four others to a favourite general. He overran Babylonia and Chaldæa, invaded Media, warred in Armenia, Upper Mesopotamia, and Syria, took tribute from Tyre, Sidon, and Byblus, contended with Benhadad and

an... of Damascus, defeated a confederate army to ...ich Ahab furnished a contingent, and received the submission of Jehu. In B.C. 825 he was succeeded by his son, Samsi-Vul, another warlike monarch, who maintained the Assyrian dominions intact, defeating Marduk-balatsu-ikbi, king of Babylon, and making expeditions into Upper Mesopotamia and Media. He reigned fourteen years only, dying in B.C. 811, and leaving his crown to his son, Vul-nirari IV. Vul-nirari reigned twenty-nine years, and extended the authority of Assyria, in the west, over Samaria, Philistia, and Edom; in the south, over Babylonia, which acknowledged his sovereignty. The last three kings of the dynasty Shalmaneser III., Asshur-dayan III., and Asshur-nirari, were comparatively insignificant. They had shortish reigns, and the last two were troubled by revolts and insurrections. The power of Assyria sank and decayed under their rule; military expeditions almost ceased; and the distant provinces probably asserted their independence.

Assyrian art and civilisation made great advances under this dynasty. Magnificent palaces were built, richly embellished with bas-reliefs. Calah was still the main capital; but the monarchs occasionally resided at Nineveh. Sculpture was rigid, but bold and grand. The history of each reign was written by contemporary annalists, and cut on stone or impressed on cylinders of baked clay. Engraved *stelæ* were erected in all the

countries under Assyrian rule. Considerable communication took place with foreign countries; and Bactrian camels, baboons, curious antelopes, elephants, and rhinoceroses, were imported into Assyria from distant lands.

In the year B.C. 746, Calah, the capital, revolted against Asshur-nirari and deposed him; and in the following year Tiglath-pileser II. became king. The dynasty which he founded lasted for no more than twenty-three years, and consisted but of two kings, himself and Shalmaneser IV., probably his son.

FOURTH ASSYRIAN DYNASTY, of two kings.

B.C.	Native Name of Kings.	Hebrew Name.	Length of Reign.
745—727	1. Tiglathi-pal-esar II.	Tiglath-pileser	18 years.
727—722	2. Shalman-uzur IV.	Shalman-eser	5 years.

...iglath-pileser II. was a patron of art and a success-...arrior. He built himself a new palace at Calah, ...es repairing the palace of Shalmaneser II. at that ... His bas-reliefs show some advance on those of ...gs of the preceding dynasty; animal forms being ...eely introduced, and there being less formality ...andling. He re-established the supremacy of ... ...ou (B.C. ...enia, Cilicia,

Assyria over all the adjacent regions. In Babylonia he contended with Ukin-zira (Chinzirus), B.C. 731—729, and defeated him, after which he established himself for two years as king. In Syria he had for adversary Rezin of Damascus, whose capital city he took, and whom he put to death. Ahaz of Judah submitted to be his tributary, while Pekah of Israel resisted him, but was defeated and deprived of a large portion of his territories. Upon this, Phœnicia, Moab, Ammon and Edom made submission, while the Arab tribes of the Sinaitic desert were overcome by force of arms. Expeditions were also conducted by Tiglath-pileser into Armenia and Media, which appear to have been successful. He reigned till B.C. 727, when Shalmaneser IV. succeeded him. This king's annals have been defaced by violence, and we know nothing of him, except that he had a reign of five years, from native sources. Josephus, however, relates that he made war upon Phœnicia, took Sidon, Akko (Acre), and the continenta Tyre, manned a fleet, and for five years besieged th island city. We also learn from Scripture that he ma war upon Hoshea, king of Israel, who had revolted placed himself under the protection of Egypt, and he began the siege of Samaria (B.C. 724). His unt end, brought about by a revolt, prevented him pro from bringing either of his sieges to a suc issue.

The leader of the revolt against Shalman

was Sargina, or Sargon, who founded the fifth and last dynasty of Assyrian monarchs. This dynasty consisted of five kings, who bore sway over Assyria for about a century.

FIFTH ASSYRIAN DYNASTY of five kings (Dynasty of the Sargonidæ).

B.C. B.C.	Native Name of Kings.	Hebrew Name.	Length of Reign.	Greek Name.
722—705	1. Sargina	Sargon	17 years	Arkeanus.
705—681	2. Sin-akhi-irba	Sennacherib	24 years	Sanacheribus.
681—667	3. Asshur-akh-iddina	Esar-haddon	14 years	Sarchedonus.
667—626	4. Asshur-bani-pal	Unknown	41 years	Sardanapalus.
626—615(?)	5. Asshur-ebil-ilim	Unknown	11 years (?)	Saracus.

Assyrian greatness and glory culminated under this dynasty, of which every king was distinguished except the last. Sargon took Samaria in his first year, and transplanted the Israelites to Gozan and Media. He league with Hezekiah, and is thought by some to have Jerusalem. In Philistia he defeated Shabak fo), king of Egypt, and captured Ashdod (He warred in Media, Elam, Armenia, Cil

Syria and Arabia. In B.C. 710 he conquered Babylonia, which had become independent under Merodach-Baladan in B.C. 722, and established himself there as king. In B.C. 708 Cyprus submitted to him. Sargon was also a great builder. He founded the city of Dur-Sargon (Khorsabad), "the Versailles of Assyria," and made it his chief capital, building there a magnificent palace, adorned with the bas-reliefs, which are now among the principal art treasures of the Louvre. He also repaired or rebuilt various palaces and temples of the older kings. The practice of the transplantation of nations seems to have been introduced by him. He was excessively severe in his punishments of rebels and other offenders. Sennacherib, his son, who succeeded him, B.C. 705, enjoys a world-wide reputation, even to the presen day, from the circumstance that his dealings wit Hezekiah, king of Judah, were recorded by Isaia. and given a place also in the second Book o Kings. He appears to have been quite as eminen a warrior as his father. In Babylonia he put do three revolts, appointed three viceroys, and fin assumed the government himself, and was King Babylon during his last eight years. In Philisti defeated an Egyptian army in the great battle of El after which he received the submission of Sha the Egyptian king. Hezekiah bought off h attack (B.C. 701), but, being threatened a secon ought the intervention of Jehovah, who c aculous destruction of Sennacherib's ho

this the Assyrian monarch avoided Palestine, and warred chiefly in the north, south, and east. He conquered Babylon, invaded Elam, reduced Cilicia, which had revolted, and built Tarsus. Sennacherib was the first of the Assyrian monarchs who made Nineveh his chief capital. He built a palace there, adorned in the usual fashion, on the site of the modern Koyunjik. His reliefs had a peculiarly realistic character. He constructed many useful works, embankments, canals, and aqueducts. After reigning twenty-four years he was the victim of a conspiracy headed by two of his sons, who murdered him in a temple at Nineveh. The revolt was, however, quickly crushed by another son, Asshur-akh-iddina, or Esar-haddon, who mounted the throne B.C. 681. This prince's reign was, comparatively speaking, short, since he held the crown for only fourteen years. During this brief space he warred in Phœnicia, Syria, Cilicia, Susiana, Babylonia, Idumæa, Arabia, and Egypt. Everywhere his arms were successful, but the most important advance which he made was in the last-named country. Here he completely defeated Tirhakah, and drove him beyond the borders, after which he divided the kingdom into twenty governments, over which he placed either Assyrian or Egyptian governors. Babylon he ruled during his entire reign in his own person, building himself a palace there and residing alternately at the Babylonian and Assyrian capitals. He was contemporary with Manasseh in Judah, and for a time deprived him of his throne, but restored him

after a short captivity. Esar-haddon was indefatigable as a builder. He constructed palaces at Nineveh and Calah, as well as at Babylon, and according to his own account built above thirty temples. He introduced the sphinx into Assyrian ornamentation from Egypt. In B.C. 667 he was succeeded by his son, Asshur-bani-pal (or Sardanapalus), who was far from possessing the character that the Greeks assigned to him. He was, on the contrary, a most warlike and energetic prince. Engaged during his earlier years in Egypt, he there repressed revolt, and maintained the Assyrian dominion, after which he had a long war with Elam, which was for a time assisted by Babylon, but which was ultimately forced to succumb and own the Assyrian supremacy. In Babylon he ruled, either by his brother, Saosduchinus, or in his own person during the whole duration of his long reign (forty-one years), except when for a brief space Saosduchinus revolted against him. He reduced many of the outlying tribes of Arabs, invaded Asia Minor, and made Gyges, king of Lydia, his tributary. Art flourished under his patronage—a new palace was built at Nineveh (Koyunjik)—and sculpture attained a perfection unknown before. The decline of Assyria seems, however, to have commenced while Asshur-bani-pal was still upon the throne. The Medes increased in power, and became aggressive, about B.C. 633. A great invasion of Scyths carried desolation over most of Western Asia about B.C. 632. Asshur-bani-pal died about B.C. 626, and was succeeded by

Asshur-ebil-ilim, probably his son, who after a short and inglorious reign was overpowered by a combined attack of the Medes and the Babylonians. The conquerors destroyed Nineveh, and divided between them the Assyrian dominions (about B.C. 615).

The civilisation and art of Assyria reached its highest point under the last dynasty. The palaces of Sargon, of Esar-haddon, and of Asshur-bani-pal surpassed those of all former kings in their extent and their ornamentation. The reliefs acquire gradually a great refinement and delicacy, while there is also much fire and spirit, particularly in the animal forms. The carvings in ivory and the castings in metal have occasionally much merit. An active commerce appears to have united Assyria with Phœnicia, Egypt, and Greece. Learning of various kinds—astronomic, geographic, linguistic, historical—was pursued, and stores were accumulated which will long exercise the ingenuity of the moderns.

F.—History of Phœnicia.

But little is known of Phœnicia prior to B.C. 1050. Tradition brought the people to the Mediterranean from the shores of the Persian Gulf. Of the seven principal cities—Tyre, Sidon, Berytus, Akko (Acre), Byblus, Tripolis, and Aradus—Sidon was pre-eminent in the most ancient times. Sidonian art is celebrated by Homer. The Sidonians excelled the other Phœnicians

as navigators down to the time of Xerxes. Politically, however, Tyre acquired the pre-eminence about B.C. 1050, and the history of Phœnicia thenceforward is in the main a history of Tyre.

A continuous list of Tyrian kings belonging to this early period has been preserved by Josephus, who took it from native sources. It consists of twelve monarchs, whose reigns cover a space of 235 years.

FIRST TYRIAN DYNASTY of twelve kings.

About B.C. — About B.C.	Probable Native Name of Kings.	Greek form of the Name.	Length of Reign.
1050 —1025	1. Abi-baal	The same	25 years (?).
1025 — 991	2. Hiram	Eiromus	34 years.
991 — 984	3. Baal-uzur	Baleazarus	7 years.
984 — 975	4. Abed-ashtoreth	Abdastartus	9 years.
975 — 963	5. Unknown	Unknown	12 years.
963 — 951	6. Ashtoreth	Astartus	12 years.
951 — 942	7. Unknown	Aserymus	9 years.
942 — 942	8. Do.	Phales	8 months.
941 — 909	9. Eth-baal	Ithobalus	32 years.
909 — 903	10. Unknown	Badezorus	6 years.
903 — 871	11. Do.	Matgen	32 years.
871 — 824	12. Do.	Pygmalion	47 years.

The most important of these monarchs were the second, Hiram, the ninth, Eth-baal, and the twelfth, Pygmalion. Hiram was contemporary with David and Solomon, and lent his aid to the building of Solomon's temple. The Tyrians of his time were already skilful navigators, and it was by their assistance that Solomon traded with Tarshish (Tartessus), and Ophir (S. Arabia). Eth-baal was contemporary with Ahab, King of Israel, and gave him his daughter Jezebel in marriage. The worship of Baal was thus introduced among the Israelites. Pygmalion was the father of Dido, and under him occurred the colonisation of Carthage (about B.C. 850). The commercial spirit of Phœnicia was largely displayed during this period, which, till towards its close, was one of complete independence. Egypt, which had been mistress of Syria before the rise of Phœnicia to greatness, had sunk into comparative insignificance under the twentieth and twenty-first dynasties, and no longer possessed an empire. Assyria had not yet attained to any considerable power or carried her arms, except in a single raid, beyond the Euphrates. The states between the Egyptian Border and the Great River were, for two centuries and a half, left unmolested. Phœnicia was able to follow freely her natural bent, which was towards commerce and navigation. She established powerful colonies in Africa and Spain, had factories on the shores of the Persian Gulf, and a trade in the Red Sea. Her caravans traversed most of Western Asia,

and the commerce of the world may be said to have been in her hands.

About the middle of the ninth century, or a little earlier, Phœnician tranquillity and prosperity began to be troubled by the advance of the Assyrian power. The Assyrian monarchs, from the time of Asshur-izir-pal, were continually pressing upon Syria, and gradually absorbing it into their empire. Phœnicia shared the fate of her neighbours, and was forced to make submission, but did so grudgingly, and from time to time rebelled. We have no continuous list of Tyrian or other kings for this period, which lasted from about B.C. 850 to B.C. 625, but the following monarchs reigned at the dates affixed to them :—

Abt. Abt. B.C. B.C.	Probable Native Name of Kings.	Greek form of Name.	Length of Reign.
743—738	1. Hiram (of Tyre)	Eiromus	5 years (?)
727—722	2. Ululâa (of Tyre)	Elulæus	5 years (?)
704—701	3. Ululâa (of Sidon)	Elulæus	
701	4. Tubal (of Sidon)	Unknown	
681—680	5. Abdi-Melkarth (of Sidon)	Unknown	
680—664	6. Baal (of Tyre)		16 years.

The first of these kings, Hiram II., gave tribute to Tiglath-pileser II., in B.C. 743 and B.C. 738. The second, Elulæus of Tyre, warred with Shalmaneser IV. throughout his whole reign (B.C. 727—722). The third, Elulæus of Sidon, who is perhaps the same person, revolted from Sennacherib (about B.C. 704), and was dethroned by him in B.C. 701, Tubal being made king in his place. Abdi-Melkarth, the fifth king, revolted from Esar-haddon at the beginning of his reign (B.C. 681), and in the next year was defeated by him and beheaded. Baal, the last king of the list, who is called King of Tyre, but who seems to have reigned over the whole of Phœnicia, was contemporary with Esar-haddon, and was at first well-disposed towards him, but revolted in B.C. 672, and placed himself under Tirhakah. For this act he was chastised by Asshur-bani-pal, Esar-haddon's son, in B.C. 664, but was allowed to retain his crown.

On the fall of Assyria, about B.C. 625—615, a struggle commenced between Babylon and Egypt for her western possessions, in the course of which Phœnicia, under the hegemony of Tyre, asserted her independence. Nebuchadnezzar, however, about B.C. 586, forced her to submit and become a Babylonian tributary. During the Babylonian period, Tyre was ruled, partly by kings, partly by judges, of whom the list has been preserved by Josephus.

SECOND TYRIAN DYNASTY of five kings and five judges.

Abt. B.C.	Abt. B.C.	Native Name of Kings.	Greek form of Name.	Length of Reign.
597—573		1. Ith-baal II. (king)	Ithobalus	24 years.
573—563		2. Baal II. (do.)		10 years.
563—563		3. Ecni-baal (judge)		3 months.
563—562		4. Unknown (do.)	Chelbes	10 months.
562—562		5. Do. (do.)	Abbarus	3 months.
562—557		6. Do. / 7. Abed-Ashtoreth (judges)	Mytgen / Abdastartus	5 years.
557—556		8. Unknown (king)	Balator	1 year.
556—552		9. Mahar-baal (do.)	Merbalus	4 years.
552—532		10. Hiram III. (do.)	Eiromus	20 years.

The loss of independence was accompanied, as was natural, by a great diminution of commercial activity. Carthage rose to greatness in the west (B.C. 700—500) and absorbed all the trade of the Western Mediterranean. Greece advanced in energy and in naval skill, and took into her hands the commerce of the Black Sea, the Sea of Marmora and the Archipelago. Phœnicia had to fall back on her land traffic, which she considerably extended and developed. Her trade was chiefly a carrying trade; but still she had certain manufactures of her own, which she exported, and by which her riches were increased, as especially, the Tyrian dye, glass, and works in gold, silver and bronze. But, perhaps, her greatest claim to consideration rests upon her invention of the alphabetical signs, which have been gradually adopted by almost the whole of the civilised world.

G.—HISTORY OF SYRIA OF DAMASCUS.

Syria of Damascus first appears as an independent state about B.C. 1040, when it has a king, Hadad, who contends with David. Previously to this time, the Hittites had, apparently, possessed the greater part of Syria, though Damascus is not mentioned as one of their towns. The following Syrian kings form, probably, a continuous list.

SYRIAN KINGS from about B.C. 1040 to about B.C. 840.

Abt. B.C. Abt. B.C.	Native Name of Kings.	Assyrian form of the Name.	Probable Length of Reign.
1040—1000	1. Hadad		40 years
1000—975	2. Rezon		25 years
975—960	3. Hezion		15 years
960—950	4. Tab-Rimmon		10 years
950—920	5. Ben-Hadad I.	Bin-idri	30 years
920—880	6. Ben-Hadad II.	Do.	40 years
880—850	7. Hazael	Khazail	30 years
850—840	8. Ben-Hadad III.	Bin-idri	10 years

Hadad, who assisted Hadad-ezer, king of Zobah, against David, was defeated and forced to become a tributary. Rezon, the second known king, was a usurper, who shook off the Israelite yoke, and was all his life a trouble and an annoyance to Solomon. Of Hezion and Tab-Rimmon nothing is known, except that they were, respectively, the grandfather and the father of the first Ben-Hadad. This king was contemporary with Baasha in Israel and with Asa in Judah, and assisted the latter against the former. His son,

Ben-Hadad II., contended with Ahab of Israel, but suffered a severe defeat. Late in his reign, he was attacked by Shalmaneser II., king of Assyria, who claims to have been victorious, but does not seem to have really made much impression. Ben-Hadad II. was murdered by Hazael, an official of the court, who succeeded him. This prince suffered considerably at the hands of Shalmaneser II., but was able to maintain his independence. He warred successfully against Jehu, king of Israel, and left the crown to his son, Ben-Hadad III. Ben-Hadad III. suffered three defeats at the hands of Joash, king of Israel, and lost the Israelite territory which his father had conquered.

After the reign of Ben-Hadad III. there is a blank of nearly a century in Syrian history, into which only one name falls. A king, whom the Assyrians called "Mariha," contended with Vul-nirari IV., the grandson of Shalmaneser II., about B.C. 800, was defeated, and made his submission. After this, we hear nothing of the Syrians until the time of Tiglath-pileser II., when we find Rezin seated on the throne. Rezin is contemporary with Pekah in Israel, and with Ahaz in Israel. In conjunction with Pekah, he makes war on Ahaz, and the two conjointly besiege Jerusalem. Ahaz places himself under the protection of Assyria, and Tiglath-pileser falls upon his assailants, defeats them, takes Damascus, and puts Rezin to death. Syria now wholly loses her independence, which she never recovers.

H.—History of Lydia.

A Lydian kingdom existed in Asia Minor from a remote date. It is said to have consisted of three dynasties, which have been called those of the Atyadæ, the Heraclidæ, and the Mermnadæ. The first of these dynasties, which is placed before B.C. 1229, seems to be wholly mythical, and need not engage our attention here. We may begin with the

First Historical Lydian Dynasty of Heraclidæ (twenty-two kings).

About B.C.	Name of Kings.	About B.C.	Name of Kings.
1229 to 814	1. Agron. (Fifteen unknown Kings.) 17. Adyattes I. 18. Ardys I.	814 to 691	19. Adyattes II. 20. Meles. 21. Myrsus. 22. Candaules.

Lydia has no authentic external history during this period. She is said to have sent a single expedition into Syria, and to have captured the Philistine city of Ascalon. And she appears to have allowed without remonstrance the colonisation of the greater part of her seaboard by the Ionian Greeks. During the latter part of the period, internal quarrels occupied her (B.C. 860—

700), a feud between the royal family (Heraclidæ) and a family of nobles (Mermnadæ) continually threatening civil war. Candaules, the last Heracleid king, was murdered by Gyges, head of the Mermnad family, who took the crown.

Second Historical Lydian Dynasty of Mermnadæ (five kings).

Abt. B.C. Abt. B.C.	Greek form of Name of King.	Assyrian form of Name.	Probable Length of Reign.
691—655	1. Gyges	Gugu	38 years.
655—617	2. Ardys II.	(Ardi)su	38 years.
617—605	3. Sadyattes	Unknown	12 years.
605—560	4. Alyattes	Do.	35 years (?)
560—546	5. Crœsus	Do.	14 years.

Gyges engaged in war with the Greek cities of the coast, attacked Miletus, and took Colophon. He was in his turn attacked by the Kimmerians (Cimbri ?), a nomadic people, at that time wandering about Asia Minor. Doubting his ability to resist them, he made application for aid to Asshur-bani-pal, king of Assyria, and sent him presents, which the Assyrian monarch regarded as "tribute." Having repulsed the Kimmerians

667—626

by Assyrian help, he re-asserted his independence, and even sent troops to assist Psammetichus in making himself king of Egypt. After this, the Kimmerians again attacked him, defeated and slew him. Ardys, his son, hereupon made his peace with Asshur-bani-pal, and consented to hold his crown under the Assyrians. He took the Greek city of Priene. The next king, Sadyattes, was undistinguished; but his son, Alyattes, was one of the greatest of the Lydian monarchs. He expelled the Kimmerians from Asia Minor, warred for six years with Astyages of Media (Istivegu), took Smyrna and attacked Clazomenæ. The last Lydian king, Crœsus, son of Alyattes, was also highly distinguished. He conquered all Asia Minor west of the Halys, made alliance with Nabonadius and Amasis, attacked Cyrus, and so provoked war with Persia. Cyrus invaded Lydia in B.C. 546, defeated Crœsus and took him prisoner, after which he made Lydia a Persian province. The wealth of Crœsus was proverbial, as was also that of Gyges. It is probable that Gyges was the inventor of coins.

I.—History of the Israelites.

The Israelites cannot be regarded as a nation until they quitted Egypt under Moses. The date of this event is much disputed; but, if the Pharaoh of the Exodus was Menephthah I., it must have been about B.C. 1300. After forty years of wandering in the

Sinaitic peninsula, they became settled in Canaan, and the period of the "Judges" commenced (about B.C. 1260). The Hebrew chronology for this period is incomplete and inexact, generally expressed in *round* numbers, and so affording no basis for exact computation. In the present text of Scripture, the Judges are represented as forming a single continuous line; but it is suspected that there were at least two contemporaneous lines, one in Western, the other in Eastern Palestine (Gilead). The following arrangement has been suggested:—

Period of the Judges.

About B.C.	Judges in Western Palestine.	Number of years.
	1. Joshua	20 (?) years.
	2. Othniel	40 (?) years.
1260	3. Ehud	Unknown.
	4. Shamgar	Do.
to	5. Deborah	40 (?) years.
	6. Gideon	40 (?) years.
1095	7. Abimelech	3 years.
	8. Samson	20 (?) years.
	9. Samuel	Unknown.

Period of the Judges (*continued*).

About B.C.	Judges in Eastern Palestine.	Number of years.
1226	1. Tola	23 years.
to	2. Jair	22 years.
	3. Jephthah	6 years.
1150	4. Ibzan	7 years.
	5. Elon	10 years.
	6. Abdon	8 years.

Israel was a weak and petty state during the whole of this period, and was generally under subjection to one or other of the neighbouring nations. Towards the close of the period, however, she began to reassert herself; Samson's exploits against the Philistines were magnificent; and in the ensuing period she became a power of considerable magnitude. By the wish of the people a monarchy took the place of the earlier theocracy; and the increase of earthly greatness and prosperity which followed on the change is most remarkable.

Period of the Undivided Monarchy.

Abt. B.C. Abt. B.C.	Name of King.	Number of years.
1095 — 1055	Saul	40 (?)
1055 — 1015	David	40 (?)
1015 — 975	Solomon	40 (?)

Exact chronology seems not yet to have established itself, since three consecutive kings are scarcely likely to have reigned, each of them, exactly forty years. We may presume, however, that each had a long reign; and we cannot ascribe to the period a duration much short of a century. Saul, the first king, gained a great victory over the Philistines at Michmash, and attacked his neighbours, the Amalekites, the Moabites, the Elamites and the Syrians of Zobah. He finally, however, lost his life in an attempt to repel a Philistine invasion. David, who succeeded him, was the great warrior of the Israelite nation. He captured Jerusalem from the Jebusites, chastised Philistia, and conquered the entire region north of Palestine as far as the Euphrates, and south as far as the Wady-el-Arish, or "River of Egypt." He even repulsed an invasion of the Assyrians, who came to the help of the Syrian

monarchs. Two rebellions occurred during his reign, headed by two of his sons, Absalom and Adonijah, but neither of them was successful. At the close of his reign, David associated his son, Solomon, in the kingdom, and the two reigned conjointly for a time. Solomon, the third king, was "a man of peace," and devoted himself to art, commerce and literature. The Jewish temple was first built by him. He traded with Egypt, Tartessus and Ophir. In the main he retained possession of the kingdom left him by his father; but Syria of Damascus revolted from him under Rezon, and Edom under a king called Hadad. At his death his kingdom broke up, and the two separate monarchies of Judah and Israel were established.

Period of the Divided Monarchy.

Abt. Abt. B.C. B.C.	Kings of Judah.	Length of Reign.	Abt. B.C.	Kings of Israel.	Length of Reign.
975—958	1. Rehoboam	18 years.	975—954	1. Jeroboam	21 years.
958—956	2. Abijah	2 years.			
956—916	3. Asa	40 years.	954—953	2. Nadab	1 year.
			953—930	3. Baasha	23 years.
			930—929	4. Elah	1 year.
			929—929	5. Zimri	7 days.
			929—918	6. Omri	11 years.
			918—897	7. Ahab	21 years.

Period of the Divided Monarchy (*continued*).

Abt. Abt. B.C. B.C.	Kings of Judah.	Length of Reign.	Abt. B.C.	Kings of Israel.	Length of Reign.
916—892	4. Jehoshaphat	24 years.	897—896	8. Ahaziah	1 year.
892—885	5. Jehoram	7 years.	896—884	9. Jehoram	12 years.
885—884	6. Ahaziah	1 year.			
884—878	7. (Athaliah)	6 years.	884—856	10. Jehu	28 years.
878—838	8. Joash	40 years.	856—839	11. Jehoahaz	17 years.
838—809	9. Amaziah	29 years.	839—823	12. Joash	16 years.
			823—772	13. Jerob[illegible] II.	51 years.
809—757	10. Azasiah (Uzzial)	52 years.	772—772	14. Zech[illegible]ah	7 mths.
			772—772	15. Shallum	1 month.
			772—762	16. Menahem	10 years.
			762—760	17. Pekahiah	2 years.
757—742	11. Jotham	15 years.	760—730	18. Pekah	30 years.
742—726	12. Ahaz	16 years.	730—722	19. Hoshea	8 years.
726—722	13. Hezekiah	5 years.			
	(Reign con tinuing).				

The double monarchy naturally commenced, and also ended, with hostilities between the two kingdoms.

Rehoboam attacked Jeroboam, but desisted at the command of a prophet. Jeroboam retaliated by calling in the aid of Shishak (Sheshonk I.), king of Egypt. Shishak ravaged Judah, and besieged Jerusalem, for which he forced Rehoboam to pay a ransom. Abijam, Rehoboam's son, also wars with Jeroboam. Asa wars with Baasha, and is assisted by Ben-Hadad II., king of Syria. He is attacked by Zerah (Osorkon?) but defeats him. Friendly relations are established between the two kingdoms by Ahab, who gives his daughter, Athaliah, in marriage to Jehoram, Jehoshaphat's son. Jehoshaphat assists Ahab against Syria, and Jehoram, Ahab's son, against Moab. The alliance between the two kingdoms, though advantageous to both politically, has disastrous results in Judah, by introducing the worship of Baal, which Ahab, influenced by his wife Jezebel, a Sidonian princess, had adopted from the Phœnicians. The Baal worship is made the State religion by Athaliah, after the death of her husband, Ahaziah, who is slain by Jehu. About this time, the wave of Assyrian conquest reaches Palestine, and the kingdom of Israel for a time becomes tributary. But the pressure diminishes after a while, and the chief antagonist of Israel is Syria. Hazael wars with Jehu and Jehoahaz successfully, Ben-Hadad III. with Joash unsuccessfully. Jeroboam II. is said to have "recovered Damascus." The war between Judah and Israel was renewed in the reigns of Amaziah and Joash, the latter defeating the former and capturing Jerusalem (about

B.C. 830). Later on (about B.C. 735), Pekah made alliance with Rezin of Damascus, and the two conjointly attacked Ahaz. Ahaz placed himself under the protection of Tiglath-pileser, who had already made one attack upon Israel in the reign of Menahem, and now came in force against the two confederates, took Damascus, put Rezin to death, chastised Pekah, and established Hoshea as king. Hoshea shortly afterwards revolted from Assyria, and made alliance with So, or Seveh (Shabak), king of Egypt. This rebellion caused Shalmaneser to invade Palestine and lay siege to Samaria, which resisted for two years, but was taken in the last year of Shalmaneser and the first of Sargon (B.C. 722). The bulk of the people was carried by Sargon into captivity, and placed partly in Gozan (Gauzanitis) and partly in Media.

Period of the Sole Monarchy of Judah.

The Jewish monarchy outlasted the Israelite by considerably more than a century. Hezekiah had already mounted the throne when Samaria was attacked by Shalmaneser, and it was in his sixth year that Samaria fell. Hezekiah upon this probably submitted himself to Sargon; but he revolted from him after a time. The Davidic line continued under eight kings, whose joint reigns covered the space of 136 years.

Kings of the Sole Monarchy.

B.C. B.C.	Name of Kings.	Length of Reign.	Contemporary Assyrian or Babylonian Kings.
722—697	1. Hezekiah	29 years	Sargon, Sennacherib.
697—642	2. Manasseh	55 years	Sennacherib, Esar-haddon, Asshur-bani-pal.
642—640	3. Amon	2 years	Asshur-bani-pal.
640—609	4. Josiah	31 years	Asshur-bani-pal, Saracus, Nabopolassar.
609—609	5. Jehoahaz	3 mnths.	Nabopolassar.
609—598	6. Jehoiakim	11 years	Nabopolassar, Nebuchadnezzar
598—598	7. Jehoiachin	3 mnths.	Nebuchadnezzar.
598—586	8. Zedekiah	12 years	Nebuchadnezzar.

Hezekiah is thought to have been attacked by Sargon, about B.C. 713, and to have made submission, but to have again rebelled at his death. In B.C. 701, Sennacherib came up against him and besieged Jerusalem, but took a ransom and retired. Soon afterwards, however, he came up a second time, being provoked by an alliance which Hezekiah had concluded with Egypt and Ethiopia. Threatening embassies were sent to Jerusalem, while Sennacherib marched against

Tirhakah. He appears to have reached the borders of Egypt, when his host suffered a miraculous destruction. Judea was saved, and Hezekiah reigned thenceforth prosperously. He was succeeded in B.C. 697 by his son Manasseh, a boy of twelve, who held the throne for fifty-five years. Manasseh's reign was inglorious. He encouraged idolatry, and shed much innocent blood. Esar-haddon suspected him of revolt, and had him brought to Babylon, but after a time re-established him in his kingdom. He was followed by his son Amon, also an idolatrous monarch, who was killed by conspirators after reigning two years. Josiah then succeeded, and had a glorious reign until just at its close. He put down idolatry, cleansed the temple, re-established the worship of Jehovah, and found a copy of the law, which Manasseh and Amon had endeavoured to destroy. The Scythian invasion of Palestine must have happened in his day, but it seems not to have touched his territories. He extended the sway of Judah over the old territory of Israel. In B.C. 609—8 he was attacked by Neco (Pharaoh-Nechoh) and defeated at Megiddo, receiving a wound of which he soon afterwards died. The Jews made his second son, Jehoahaz, king; but, after an absence of three months in Syria, Neco returned, deposed him, and put upon the throne the eldest son, Jehoiakim. This prince, attacked by Nebuchadnezzar in B.C. 605, submitted and became a Babylonian tributary, but in B.C. 602 he revolted, and was soon afterwards deposed by

his suzerain (B.C. 598). Jehoiachin (Coniah), his son, was made king, but reigned only three months, being deposed, like his father. The last king, Zedekiah, a younger son of Josiah, succeeded; but he too rebelled against Babylon, having made alliance with Apries (Pharaoh-Hophra). Nebuchadnezzar, upon this, marched once more into Palestine, besieged Jerusalem B.C. 588, and took it two years later, B.C. 586. The bulk of the nation was carried into captivity.

J.—History of Media.

The Medes first appear in history in the reign of Shalmaneser II., who attacks them about B.C. 830. They were then a weak nation, under a number of petty chieftains, and offered but a feeble resistance to the Assyrian arms. No attempt, however, seems to have been made to conquer them until the time of Sargon, who defeated several of the chiefs, seized their cities, and settled his Israelite captives in them. Later, Assyrian monarchs made further conquests, and it was not till the decline of the Assyrian power in the later part of the reign of Asshur-bani-pal, that the Medes recovered their independence. According to Herodotus, independent Media had four kings, whose reigns covered the space of a century and a half, but the existence of his first and second kings is doubtful.

Median Kings, according to Herodotus.

Abt. B.C.	Abt. B.C.	Native Name of King.	Greek form of Name.	Supposed Length of Reign.
708	655	Dayak	Deïoces	53 years.
655	633	Frawartish	Phraortes	22 years.
633	593	Unknown	Cyaxares	40 years.
593	558	Isti-vegu	Astyages	35 years.

Deïoces is regarded by Herodotus as the founder of the independent kingdom, which he may have been, if we lower his date about fifty years. Frawartish, his son, extended the Median sway over Persia, and made war upon Assyria, but perished at the first siege of Nineveh. Cyaxares succeeded about B.C. 633, and resumed the Assyrian war, but was called off t[illegible] the Scyths. A time of trouble followed, bu[illegible] ere long the Scythian power was broken, and Cyaxare[illegible] extended his sway over all North-Western Asia as far as the Caspian Sea, the Caucasus, and the Halys. He then attempted the conquest of Asia Minor west of the Halys, but was resisted by Alyattes of Lydia and a confederacy of kings, with whom, after a six years' war,

he concluded a peace. He also renewed his attacks upon Assyria, and in conjunction with Nabopolassar of Babylonia destroyed the Assyrian power. Nineveh was taken and razed to the ground (about B.C. 615). Cyaxares was succeeded by his son, Astyages (Isti-vegu), about B.C. 593, who allied himself both with Lydia and Babylon. He reigned peacefully, until the Persians revolted from his rule under Cyrus, who after a war which lasted a considerable time took him prisoner and absorbed Media into his dominions (about B.C. 558).

SIXTH PERIOD.

FROM THE ESTABLISHMENT OF THE PERSIAN DOMINION BY CYRUS (B.C. 558) TO THE ESTABLISHMENT OF THE MACEDONIAN EMPIRE BY ALEXANDER (B.C. 330).

A.—HISTORY OF PERSIA.

The origin of the Persian monarchy is lost in fable. A people bearing the name of Bartsu or Partsu is encountered by the Assyrian monarchs in the Zagros region about B.C. 850, who are thought generally to be

the Persians. They are a weak race, ruled by a number of petty chiefs. The accounts given by the Greeks of the rise of Persia to power are shown by recent discoveries to be nearly worthless. What alone is certain of the early times seems to be, that Persia became an independent monarchy about B.C. 640, under a certain Hakhamanish (Achæmenes), who left the throne to a line of four successors, terminating in the great Cyrus. For a time Persia acknowledged the suzerainty of Media, but this connection seems to have been broken off earlier than the Greeks imagined, and Persia entered on a career of conquest on her own account. Cyrus began by extending his dominion from Persia over Elam, and took the title of "King of Ansan," about B.C. 558, or a little earlier. War between Media and Persia broke out about B.C. 550, and in B.C. 549, as Isti-vegu (Astyages, the last Median king, was proceeding to attack Cyrus) his army revolted, and delivered him up as a prisoner into the hands of his enemy. Cyrus then added Media to his dominions. Soon afterwards he began to attack Babylon; but in B.C. 546, provoked by Crœsus of Lydia, he marched against Sardis, destroyed the Lydian power, and added Asia Minor to the Empire. This conquest was followed by the conquest of Babylon in B.C. 538, and of the eastern provinces, Hyrcania, Parthia, Bactria, Sacia, Chorasmia, Sogdiana, Aria, Drangiana, Arachosia, Sattagydia, Gandaria, soon after. In B.C. 529, Cyrus was killed in an expedition against the tribes on his north-eastern frontier.

Dynasty of Achæmenian Kings of Persia.

B.C. B.C.	Native Name of King.	Greek form of Name.	Length of Reign.
558—529	1. Kurush	Cyrus	29 years.
529—522	2. Kambujiya	Cambyses	7 years.
522—521	3. Gaumata	Gomates	8 months.
521—486	4. Daryavush I.	Darius I.	35 years.
486—465	5. Khshayarsha I.	Xerxes I.	21 years.
465—425	6. Artakhshatra I.	Artaxerxes I.	20 years.
425—425	7. Khshayarsha II.	Xerxes II.	45 days.
425—424	8. Unknown.	Secydianus	6 mths. 15 dys.
424—405	9. Daryavush II.	Darius II.	19 years.
405—359	10. Artakhshatra II.	Artaxerxes II.	46 years.
359—338	11. Artakhshatra III.	Artaxerxes III.	21 years.
338—336	12. Arsha (?)	Arses	2 years.
336—330	13. Daryavush III.	Darius III.	6 years.

The Persian Empire lasted for the space of 228 years, during which time there were thirteen kings. Of these, besides Cyrus, the greatest were Cambyses, the second king; Darius, son of Hystaspes, the fourth; Xerxes I., the fifth; and Artaxerxes III., the eleventh. Cambyses conquered Egypt in B.C. 527, at the same time absorbing Phœnicia and Cyprus. He led an expedition into Ethiopia, which was unsuccessful, about B.C. 524, and sent another, which also failed, against the Oasis of Ammon. During his absence in Egypt, a pretender, Gomates, seated himself upon the Persian throne, at the instigation of the Magi, who were opposed to the religion of Zoroaster. Cambyses, on receiving the intelligence, committed suicide, and Gomates was for a time undisturbed. He abolished the Zoroastrian worship, and overthrew the altars and temples, but was not allowed to reign more than eight months, being deposed and executed by Darius, the son of Hystaspes, B.C. 521.

Darius I. was at once a great conqueror and a great organiser. He added to the empire, in one direction, the important province of India, which furnished nearly one-third of the imperial revenue, and in another Macedonia and Thrace, which brought him into contact with European Greece. He led an expedition deep into Scythia, and made such an impression upon the northern nomads that their incursions into Asia ceased for three centuries and a half. He put down a series of revolts (B.C. 521—515) which threatened the complete dissolution of the empire. Having thus established internal peace, he introduced the satrapial system, dividing his dominions into twenty (?) governments,

under "satraps" (civil governors), holding office during the royal pleasure, and checked by "royal secretaries" (*chargés d'affaires*) and military commandants, appointed also by the crown. He organised the revenue on a new system, fixing the amount in money and products to be paid annually by each province. He instituted a new gold and silver coinage for general circulation throughout the empire, and established everywhere "royal roads" for the purpose of intercommunication, maintaining posting stations along each both for public and for private use.

About B.C. 500, after Darius had been on the throne for twenty years, a revolt of great importance disturbed the tranquillity of the empire. Beginning among the Greeks of Asia Minor, it spread to the native races—the Lydians, Carians, Caunians and Cyprians, and was further fomented by the Greeks of Europe, who had begun to regard Persia as a dangerous neighbour. Athens and Eretria took part in an expedition which terminated in the destruction of Sardis. The revolt was, however, crushed within the space of about six years, but it led on to a still more memorable contest. The honour of the Great King required the chastisement of all those who had assisted his revolted subjects, and in B.C. 493 Mardonius received orders to invade European Greece by way of Thrace and Macedonia. This first attempt was altogether unsuccessful, both fleet and army suffering considerable losses, whereupon

a second expedition was arranged, which proceeded by sea, and aimed especially at chastising the two offending Greek states, Eretria and Athens. Eretria was conquered and its inhabitants carried into captivity, but the invasion of Attica led to disaster. A hundred thousand Persians were completely defeated by 20,000 Athenians and Platæans in the great battle of MARATHON (B.C. 490), and the first wave of Asiatic invasion was dashed back by Greece in broken fragments upon the Asiatic shores. A revolt in Egypt prevented Darius from making any further attempt against Hellenic independence and caused him to leave the task of exacting vengeance to his son, Xerxes I., who succeeded him B.C. 486.

Xerxes I. was a very degenerate descendant of the old Achæmenian line. Born in the purple, he had no military qualities, and was even weaker in character than most Oriental despots. Having crushed the Egyptian revolt through his brother, Achæmenes, he made his memorable attack upon Greece in the fifth year of his reign, B.C. 480. The Dardanelles were bridged, the isthmus of Athos cut through, above a thousand ships collected, at least a million of men marched from Asia into Thessaly, and the conquest of Greece attempted. But in two battles by land and two by sea the great host suffered almost complete annihilation. Thermopylæ and Platæa, SALAMIS and Mycalé, gave the death-blow to the Persian hopes,

and saved Europe from being Orientalised. Xerxes returned home after the defeat of Salamis, Mardonius perished at Platæa, Mycalé saw the destruction of the last remnants of the great fleet. No further invasion of European Greece was ever made by Persia, which henceforth was content to seek her own safety by inducing the Greek states to turn their swords against each other.

Artaxerxes I. (Longimanus) suppressed a revolt of Egypt fomented by the Athenians, and crushed a rebellion in Syria under Megabyzus. He made peace with the Greeks after the battle of Cyprus, conceding the independence of the Greek cities from the mouth of the Hellespont to Phaselis. The peace is known as "The Peace of Callias."

Darius II. (Nothus) subdued rebellions in Media and Lydia, but lost Egypt, which revolted under Nepherites. He re-established, however, the Persian suzerainty over the Greek cities of Asia Minor, and concluded treaties by which Persia and Sparta becames friends and allies. But the court of Persia during his reign became more and more corrupt, the eunuchs increased in power, and female influence more and more preponderated.

The reign of Artaxerxes II. (Mnemon) was chiefly remarkable on account of the civil war waged between the monarch and his brother, Cyrus the younger. Cyrus

took into his pay a body of ten thousand Greek mercenaries, and by their aid would have seated himself on the throne, but for his own rash impetuosity. The Greeks won the battle of Cunaxa; but, their patron having fallen, nothing remained for them but to force their way through a thousand miles of hostile country back to the coast. Their safe return showed how weak Persia had become, and how poor her resistance would probably be if attacked by a strong invader. Sparta sought to utilise the knowledge thus gained by sending a large army into Asia Minor under Agesilaüs; but Persian craft cut short his career of conquest, and raised up such a confedracy against the Lacedæmonians at home as forced them to recall him. The "Peace of Antalcidas" followed (B.C. 387), whereby the Greeks of Asia were once more made over to the tender mercies of the Court of Susa, and Persia agreed to interfere no more in Greek quarrels.

Still, as time went on, the empire was more and more plunged into difficulties. The revolt of Evagoras in Cyprus (B.C. 391--379) was only quelled with extreme difficulty; the war with the Cadusians (B.C. 384) destroyed the military reputation of the monarch. An attempt to recover Egypt (B.C. 376) completely failed. Atrocities of the worst kind disgraced the court. In B.C. 359 Mnemon died amid a heap of domestic tragedies, and was succeeded by his youngest legitimate son, Ochus, who reigned as Artaxerxes III.

Artaxerxes III. was an active and energetic prince, but unscrupulous, cruel and bloodthirsty. He destroyed almost the entire royal stock to secure himself from rivals, crushed revolts in Asia Minor, Phœnicia and Cyprus, and set himself to bring back under subjection the long-lost province of Egypt. After one complete repulse (B.C. 351) he was successful; and in B.C. 346 military resistance ceased, and the last of the Pharaohs was forced to fly into Ethiopia. Mentor and Bagoas, the chief of Ochus's ministers, were able administrators, and the last six years of his reign (B.C. 344—338) formed a bright spot in Persian history. The navy was increased and strengthened; Greek mercenaries were taken into the royal service; incipient rebellion was everywhere quelled. A watch was kept upon the opposite shores of the Ægean, and Macedon was thwarted by Persian gold or Persian arms in more than one of her enterprises. But a revolution in the palace once more broke out. Bagoas (B.C. 338) murdered his master, and placed his son, Arses, a mere boy, upon the throne, thus exposing Persia to internal troubles and difficulties at the very time when a great external danger impended.

For Philip of Macedon was already preparing to invade Asia. Appointed generalissimo of Greece in B.C. 337 by the Congress of Corinth, the Macedonian king had already sent the vanguard of his army across the Hellespont into Asia, when the dagger of Pausanias brought his career to an end. Persia had a brief respite,

but under a new king of merely moderate abilities, Darius III. (Codomannus), who succeeded Arses in B.C. 336, was unable to take much advantage of it. Preparations were indeed made—a fleet was collected and manned—the satraps of Asia Minor were reinforced with troops of good quality from the interior of the empire—and Memnon, the brother of Mentor, was instructed to take the offensive in North-Western Asia. But these measures were insufficient and were too late. By a culpable remissness Alexander was allowed to transport his army of 30,000 foot and 5,000 horse into Asia in the spring of B.C. 334; the battle of the Granicus, which should have been avoided, was fought, and Asia Minor was lost at a blow. Two other desperate efforts were made to resist the invaders; but the battle of Issus in B.C. 333, and that of ARBELA in B.C. 331, were alike disastrous to the Persians; and the murder of Codomannus by Bessus left Alexander undisputed master of Asia. The contest between Greece and Persia for supremacy, which had lasted a hundred and sixty years, was terminated on the plain of Gaugamela, and Macedon, which had absorbed Greece, became the great world-power.

B.—Parallel History of Greece.

a.—The Earliest Notices.

If the "Akausha" of the Egyptian monuments are

really the Achæans, we must be said to have a notice of the existence of the Greeks as a nation as early as B.C. 1300. The mention of Javan (Ionians) in the tenth chapter of Genesis belongs to nearly the same period. The earliest of the remains of Greek literature—the Homeric poems—are by some assigned to about B.C. 1000. Recent excavations at Mycenæ and Tiryns have revealed an architecture and an art probably of a not much later date. It may be laid down as tolerably well ascertained that the islands and coasts of European Greece were in the possession of the race which is still predominant in them at least as early as the thirteenth century before our era.

The tribes were at this time very numerous, including Pelasgi, Leleges, Curetes, Caucones, Hellenes, Aones, Dolopes, Dryopes, and many others. The Achæi were the most powerful subdivision of the Hellenes. Illyrian and Thracian tribes bordered the Pelasgo-Hellenic race upon the north, and exerted a continual pressure upon them, which produced forced migratory movements. The colonisation of North-Western and Western Asia Minor was one of the earliest results. Later on, the commercial spirit caused an increased spread of the race, until by degrees the coasts of the Black Sea, of the Sea of Marmora, the Mediterranean, the Adriatic, and the Gulf of Lyons were, in most places, studded with Greek settlements.

The first seat of power was the Peloponnese. At a time probably anterior to B.C. 1000, an Achæan monarchy of some strength grew up in that small peninsula, the earliest capitals being Mycenæ and Tiryns, which were superseded after a while by Argos and Sparta. A prince of this time, called by tradition Agamemnon, made an expedition against North-West Asia Minor, and captured after a long war a town called Ilium. A vent was thus obtained for the surplus population of European Greece, which thenceforward for some centuries flowed mainly into Asia.

b.—From the Dorian Conquest of the Peloponnese to the Commencement of the Wars with Persia (about B.C. 1100—500).

The Dorians were a pure Hellenic race which had attained to considerable strength in Central Greece while the Achæans were dominant in the Peloponnese. In course of time a jealousy grew up between the two powers, and the Dorians made war upon their rivals. Gradually forcing their way (B.C. 1100—800), they reduced to subjection all the more desirable portions of the country, and founded three principal states, Argos, Lacedæmon and Messenia, Argos holding the foremost place. All three states were hereditary monarchies. Minor Dorian states established about the same time were Corinth, Sicyon, Phlius, Trœzen, Epidaurus and Megara. The Achæans maintained themselves in the

northern mountain region, which thenceforth became Achæa or Achaia. Arcadia continued in possession of its old inhabitants, who regarded themselves as Ionians.

No sooner was the resistance of the Achæans to their invaders finally overcome (about B.C. 800) than the Dorian conquerors began to quarrel among themselves. *Sparta* contended with Argos (about B.C. 800—750), and enlarged her territory at the expense of her north-eastern neighbour. She then attacked Messenia, and after two long wars, separated by a brief interval (B.C. 743—668), succeeded in reducing her to subjection. About B.C. 554 she deprived Argos of the tract called Cynuria or the Thyreatis. She also conquered Tegea, one of the Arcadian towns. By these advances she became mistress of about two-thirds of the Pelopennese. *Argos* meanwhile declined in power. Reaching her culminating point about B.C. 780—744 under Pheidon I., a great prince, who introduced the coinage of money and a new and exact system of weights and measures from Asia, she thenceforth sank and decayed, exercising scarcely any influence in Greece during the remainder of its history. *Messenia* was crushed, but the people though enslaved, retained their national spirit, were ever a thorn in the side of their conqueror, and recovered political life by the help of Epaminondas.

In Central Greece during this period two states were pre-eminent, Bœotia and Attica. *Bœotia* was a confederacy of (originally) fourteen cities, which was

gradually reduced to ten. It was administered by a council, which met at Coroneia, and by eleven "Bœotarchs"—two from Thebes. But the central government was weak, and the several cities went their several ways, being often at war one with another. By degrees, however, Thebes obtained a preponderating influence, which excited the jealousy of the other states. Bœotia had frequent wars with Attica between B.C. 1000 and B.C. 500; and lost in the struggle Oropus, Eleutheræ and (in B.C. 510) Platæa.

Attica is said to have been originally a confederacy like Bœotia, but obtained the advantage of being centralised under Athens at a very early date. According to the tradition, she was governed by kings till about B.C. 1050, when, on the death of Codrus, archons were substituted. Life-archons bore rule for three centuries —B.C. 1050–752—when the term of office was made decennial. This continued till B.C. 684, when a board of nine archons took the place of the one archon, and the term of office was reduced from ten years to a single year. The nine archons were elected annually by the nobles (Eupatridæ). The wars of Athens during this time were chiefly with Bœotia and Megara; from Bœotia she gained some territory; but on Megara she made no impression.

About B.C. 630, internal troubles began to threaten. A demand for written laws arose; often the earliest cry

of an oppressed people. To meet this cry, a "lawgiver" (νομοθετής) was appointed, but he was the tool of the oligarchs, and wrote his laws in blood. His legislation provoked "the insurrection of Cylon," which was put down by the government, but revealed perils which compelled them to change their policy, and adopt a conciliatory attitude. Solon was made "lawgiver" (B.C. 594), and a moderately democratical constitution set up. Debts were remitted, and the law of debt altered. Every Athenian was required to teach his son a handicraft, and all Athenians who had incurred slavery for debt were set free.

But tranquillity was not secured by these changes. Three factions were formed among the citizens, and civil war threatened to break out, when a "Saviour of Society" appeared in the person of Pisistratus, a democratic Eupatrid, who assumed dictatorial powers. The "tyranny" of Pisistratus lasted thirty-three years (B.C. 560 to 527), and descended to his son Hippias, who ruled from B.C. 527 to 520, when he was dethroned by the democratic party with the help of Sparta. A purely democratic constitution was then established by Clisthenes.

Great military success followed. Salamis had been taken from Megara, about B.C. 580, by Solon. Now the Bœotians and Chalcideans were defeated, and Chalcis was conquered and occupied. Aid was sent to the

Greeks of Asia Minor, who had revolted from Darius, and Athenians took part in the capture and burning of Sardis. War was made on Ægina, and the naval force of Athens acquired skill and experience.

c.—From the commencement of the war with Persia to the establishment of Macedonian supremacy over Greece (B.C. 500 to 335).

The struggle between European Greece and Persia was the natural consequence of the advance of the latter power and her pretentions to universal dominion, and could not have been long delayed; but it was perhaps a little hastened by the occurrence of the Ionian revolt, and the part taken in the struggle by Athens and Eretria. The Great King had to revenge the insult of an invasion of his territory by such petty powers, and sent his first expedition against Greece in B.C. 492, within eight years of the burning of Sardis. This expedition, conducted by Mardonius along the European coast, was frustrated by the elements, and a further respite of two years was allowed to Athens before the Persian heel should trample her to dust. But in B.C. 490 Datis and Artaphernes set forth from Asia with a fleet of 600 triremes, and an army variously estimated at from 200,000 to 600,000 men. The line taken was the direct one across the Ægean, through the islands. Naxos was chastised, Delos spared,

Eubœa invaded, and Eretria taken and burnt. A landing was then effected on the eastern coast of Attica, and the battle of Marathon was fought. An Athenian army of 10,000 men, assisted by a thousand Platæans, completely defeated the vast Persian host, drove it to its ships, and even captured seven of these as they strove to push off. An attempt to surprise Athens in the presumed absence of the Athenian army failed. Persia found herself completely baffled by a single Grecian state, and the two commanders had to carry home the tidings of their own discomfiture.

But it was felt on all hands that the Great King would not submit to such a rebuff without an effort to recover himself. In expectation of further attack, Athens, by the advice of Themistocles, while she continued the Æginetan war, steadily augmented her navy. Sparta used her influence to induce the various Grecian states to forego their quarrels and unite against the common emeny. Appointed to the supreme command by both land and sea, she arranged a plan of campaign in B.C. 481, and held herself and her allies in readiness. The third attack would probably have been made in B.C. 486 by Darius in person, had not Egypt revolted in that year and thrown his plans into confusion. As it was, the blow did not fall till B.C. 480, when the weak and incompetent Xerxes had succeeded the sagacious Darius. Invading Greece with an unwieldly armament gathered from all parts of the empire,

and so composed mainly of troops that were almost worthless, he sought to carry all before him by mere weight of numbers, but failed egregiously. The Greeks withstood his army at Themopylæ, his navy at Artemisium and Salamis, causing him on each occasion great losses, and at Salamis completely defeating and almost destroying his fleet. The elements also fought against him, the sea engulfing hundreds of his ships. Xerxes occupied Attica and burnt Athens, from which the bulk of the population had withdrawn, but after Salamis, fearful of having his retreat cut off, withdrew hastily to Asia. Mardonius was left behind with a picked army of 350,000 men, to carry on the war by land, and endeavour to conquer the country. After vainly attempting to detach Athens from the common cause, he put all his hopes to the hazard of a single battle. Defeated and slain at Platæa, by Pausanias, the Spartan king, whose entire army did not equal a third of the army opposed to him, Mardonius left behind him an honourable name, but lost Persia her last chance of gaining anything by her lavish expenditure of blood and treasure.

The war now entered upon a new phase. The Greeks took the offensive. The remnant of the fleet of Xerxes were destroyed at Mycalé. Sestos was besieged and taken, B.C. 479; Cyprus was liberated, B.C. 478; Byzantium taken in the year following; Eïon recovered in B.C. 475; and in B.C. 466 a great victory by sea and

land gained at the Eurymedon. Egypt then became the scene of struggle. Inarus, the Libyan, had revolted in conjunction with Amyrtæus, a native Egyptian, in B.C. 460. Athens sent 200 ships to the aid of the rebels, who for six years maintained themselves. Then, however, the rebellion was crushed. But the war with Persia continued about Cyprus, where Cimon, in B.C. 450, gained a great naval victory, but fell in the battle. This led to the "Peace of Callias." Persia relinquished to Athens the Greek cities of the coast, while Athens engaged to leave Persia in undisturbed possession of Egypt and Cyprus.

The relative position of the Greek states one towards another was greatly changed by the Persian contest. Sparta (B.C. 477), in consequence of the traitorous intrigues of Pausanias with Xerxes, withdrew from the conduct of the war, and allowed Athens to take her place. Athens, elevated into this new position, after a short time organised a great confederacy in such a way as made her almost absolute mistress of the resources of the entire body of confederates. All the islands of the Ægean but Melos and Thera, with the maritime cities of Europe north and east of the mouth of the Peneus, and all the Greek cities of Asia, became her subjects. Her naval strength was doubled, her revenue probably quadrupled. Athens became the centre of an empire, extending from Zante in the west to Phaselis in the Eastern Mediterranean. Appeals were allowed

from the local courts of all subject allies to the Athenian judicature. All of them paid her tribute, and looked up to her as protector and metropolis. Her most flourishing period of art and literature set in—the Propylæa and Parthenon were built—Æschylus and Sophocles wrote, Pericles was great in oratory, Phidias in sculpture, Anaxagoras in philosophy. Every kind of talent was attracted to Athens, as to the centre of Greece, from every quarter, and an "Augustan age" set in, which has never been equalled elsewhere.

The maritime supremacy of Athens led on to an attempt on her part to make herself also a great land power. She conquered Megara, and absorbed the Megarid in B.C. 461; secured herself by her "Long Walls" in B.C. 457; took possession of Bœotia after the battle of Œnophyta in B.C. 456; received the submission of Phocis and Locris in the same year; stretched out her hand towards Thessaly with designs of absorption soon after. But, after ten most glorious years, during which she must be regarded as at the acmé of her power—from B.C. 456 to 447—reaction set in. In B.C. 447 Bœotia shook herself free by the battle of Coroneia; Phocis and Locris fell off; Megara, Nisæa, Trœzen had to be surrendered, B.C. 445; nothing remained but the maritime supremacy, and the general hegemony over the islands and maritime towns, advantages which, however, might well have contented a less ambitious state.

While Athens thus established herself in the eyes of the Greeks generally, and still more of foreigners, as the foremost power in Greece, Sparta declined, partly in consequence of her want of enterprise, but still more from the losses which she suffered through the great revolt of her Helots, B.C. 464, and the ten years' war which was requisite for their subjugation. As she declined, she grew more and more jealous of the power that had taken her place, and resolved on a prolonged and desperate effort to recover her ancient position. The Peloponnesian War had many minor provocatives, but its main cause was Spartan jealousy—the determination to crush a hated rival, who had outstripped her on the path of glory. Among minor causes, probably the chief was the commercial rivalry of Corinth, which found herself entirely shut out from the East, and greatly hampered in the West, by the constant growth and increase of Athenian influence.

The Peloponnesian War lasted twenty-seven years, from B.C. 431 to B.C. 404. It extended itself over almost the entire Grecian world, affecting almost every state from Selinus, at the extreme west of Sicily to Cnidus and Rhodes, in the Eastern Ægean. It was a war for supremacy between two rivals whose strength was very fairly balanced, Sparta having the advantage by land and Athens by sea, Sparta having tenacity, military training, and amount of armed force on her side, while Athens had mobility, elasticity, enterprise, and

much superior maritime skill. The strength of Athens lay on the eastern, that of Sparta on the western side of Greece, and the main efforts of the rivals were directed to increasing their own strength and diminishing that of their adversaries in the quarter where they were weakest. Hence, the main Athenian attacks were on Cephallenia, Ætolia, Pylos and Sicily; the main Spartan ones on Chalcidicé and the Greek cities in Asia.

The war divides itself into three periods—1. From the commencement to the "Peace of Nicias" (B.C. 431–421), ten years; 2. From the "Peace of Nicias" to the formal rupture of the Peace by Sparta (B.C. 421–413), eight years; and 3. From the rupture of the Peace of Nicias to the capture of Athens (B.C. 413–404), nine years. The desultory warfare of the first period was to the advantage of Athens up to B.C. 424, when disaster began. The battle of Delium was a severe blow. The expedition of Brasidas into Chalcidicé, and its success was still more menacing, and Nicias, after the death of Brasidas, made a peace by which he hoped to terminate the struggle; but the allies of Sparta refused to be bound by the act of their head. Corinth especially determined to continue the struggle, and was the life and soul of all the coalitions formed to resist Athens during the second period of the war. By her efforts chiefly, the old Spartan confederacy was restored in B.C. 420, and Athens having allied herself

with Argos, the Peloponnese became the scene of conflict in B.C. 418. Sparta gained the battle of Mantinea in that year, and Athens, by the advice of Alcibiades, determined on a counter blow. The expedition to Sicily was undertaken, B.C. 415, and was successful at first; but the recall of Alcibiades, and the open interference of Sparta, changed the general aspect of affairs. In the third period of the war, Athens suffered continued losses, only relieved by a very few gleams of success. Her fleet and army were entirely destroyed in Sicily. Sparta transferred the war to Asia Minor, and obtained Persian help. The Athenian yoke was thrown off by most of the continental towns, and some of the islands. The question became one of naval supremacy. Success seemed to incline to Athens when she gained the victory of Arginusæ, but Ægos-potami destroyed all her hopes. Lysander sailed from the Hellespont, and blockaded the Piræus, while Pausanias and Agis invested Athens by land. After five months, the city surrendered, and the war was at an end.

It had now to be seen what use Sparta would make of her victory. The immediate result was the assistance given to Cyrus, B.C. 401, which had, no doubt, been bargained for before that prince lent Lysander the aid which greatly helped him to crush Athens. Ten thousand Greeks under a Spartan commander marched to Cunaxa to place Cyrus upon the throne. They were victorious, but Cyrus fell. The fruit of victory was

snatched from their hands, but they did not despair. Step by step they forced their way through a thousand obstacles, from the centre of Persia to its boundary, thus proving the incredible weakness of the empire, which, within less than a century, had been so strong. There can be little doubt that both Sparta and Persia herself laid the lesson to heart. Sparta set herself to champion the Greek cause in Asia Minor, and within six years, had penetrated, under Agesilaüs, so deeply into the continent as to make the Persian monarch tremble for his empire. Persia recognised that henceforth she must defend herself by art rather than by arms, and poured her stores of gold into the laps of Greek statesmen, with the object of fomenting wars among the various states, and so keeping the Greeks employed at home.

The "Corinthian War" (B.C. 395–387) was the first fruit of this policy. Athens, Argos, Thebes and Corinth allied themselves against Sparta in B.C. 395, the Persians undertaking to furnish the allies with abundant supplies of money and ships. The allies were successful at first. Lysander fell at Haliartus (B.C. 395), and Agesilaüs was recalled from Asia. Conon defeated the Spartan fleet at Cnidus (B.C. 394). The "Long Walls" of Athens were restored, and a Persian fleet, under Conon, ravaged the shores of the Peloponnese. But Sparta gained three land victories at Corinth, Coroneia and Lechæum; the allies wearied

of unsuccessful fighting, and in B.C. 387, Persia imposed her own terms upon Greece by dictating the "Peace of Antalcidas." The terms of peace were so cunningly framed, that fresh war was almost certain to result from them. They required the absolute independence of all Grecian states, and thus intensified the worst of all the evils from which Greece suffered, the spirit of excessive division and separation.

The "Peace of Antalcidas" led naturally to an internecine struggle between Sparta and Thebes. Thebes was nothing except as head of the Bœotian league, and the terms of the "Peace" allowed of no supremacy of any one state over another. Sparta, assuming the task of enforcing the terms of peace, crushed Thebes, B.C. 382, and followed this up by an attack on Olynthus, the head of another confederacy. Olynthus was overpowered in B.C. 379. But there were forces at work below the surface with which Sparta had not counted. The Greeks were not made for submission, or for a tame and uneventful course of life. Sparta could not long restrain them; and in the year of the fall of Olynthus, a fresh struggle commenced. Thebes under Pelopidas determined to assert herself; Athens, her old enemy, joined her; and a war began between Sparta on the one hand, and these two allies on the other. Athens wearied of the war after a while, and concluded a separate peace, B.C. 372; but Thebes, though standing alone, continued the contest, and was rewarded by a

grand success. Epaminondas gained the magnificent victory of LEUCTRA, and with it the hegemony of Greece. All Central Greece joined him. The Spartan Harmosts were everywhere expelled from the towns. The Peloponnese was invaded, Arcadia established as an independent confederacy under Megalopolis, and Messenia made once more a sovereign state (B.C. 370). Soon afterwards Thessaly, which was under Alexander of Pheræ, was attacked and forced to submit herself (B.C. 363). Meanwhile, however, Theban influence had lost ground in the Peloponnese, and a second invasion was needed to re-establish it. Epaminondas once more conducted it in person, defeated the combined Spartans and Athenians, and died in the arms of victory, at Mantinea, in B.C. 362. Bœotia, which he and his friend, Pelopidas, had raised to greatness, sank back into comparative insignificance at his death, and played but a secondary part in the remaining history of Greece.

The general exhaustion of the Greek states brought about a general peace in the year after Mantinea. Sparta alone refused to sign, since she hoped to find an opportunity of conquering Messenia; but she did not actually go to war, and six years (B.C. 362 to 358) passed away in tranquillity. Athens recovered her maritime power and many of her old possessions, as Eubœa, Samos, Chios, Cos, Rhodes, Byzantium and the Chersonese. She carried on hostilities by sea with

Alexander of Pheræ, and had petty conflicts with Perdiccas of Macedon, and Cotys and Cersobleptes in Thrace. By these means she grew in power and once more aroused the jealousies that had laid her low half a century previously. A "Social War," or revolt of her allies, broke out in B.C. 358, and lasted till B.C. 355, terminating in the success of the rebel states, and costing her the lives of three of her best generals, Chabrias, Timotheus and Iphicrates. During the war, Philip of Macedon, who had succeeded his brother, Perdiccas, considerably increased in strength. He conquered successively Amphipolis, Pydna, Potidæa and Methoné, thus becoming master of the entire region between the Peneus and the Nestus. Athens was too much occupied with the "Social War" to pay any attention to his advance. Greece generally was still blind to the danger which threatened her from his combined ambition and ability.

Before the "Social War" was over, a new struggle, the "Sacred War," broke out (B.C. 357). Phocis, condemned by the Amphictyonic Council of a religious offence, was, through the influence of Thebes, mulcted in a sum which she could not possibly pay. She was thus forced to fight for existence. This she was, by seizing the Delphic treasures, enabled to do successfully for ten years (B.C. 357—347); but in B.C. 346, the Thebans invoked the aid of Philip, who crushed Phocis, and took her place in the Council as a power in Central

Greece. This was equivalent to the acceptance of a master; but a last desperate effort was made. Repentant Thebes and awakened Athens joined in obstructing the triumphant progress of the Macedonians, and were alike struck down at Chæroneia (B.C. 338), which laid Greece prostrate at Philip's feet. Philip, appointed generalissimo against Persia in the next year, sent an army into Asia, and was about to follow in person the next year, when he was killed by an assassin. Greece revolted, and endeavoured to reassert herself, but in vain. The heir of Philip, his son, Alexander the Great, had all his father's promptitude and more than all his military talent. He nipped the rebellion in the bud, destroyed Thebes, and received, amid the plaudits of delegates from a hundred states, that headship of Greece which had been previously conferred upon his father.

C.—Parallel History of Carthage.

Carthage was, according to the tradition, a Tyrian colony, and founded about B.C. 850. Its history covers a space of a little more than seven centuries (B.C. 850 to B.C. 146), and naturally divides itself into three periods:—1. From the foundation of the city to the

commencement of the wars with Syracuse, B.C. 850—480; 2. From the first attack on Syracuse to the breaking out of the first war with Rome, B.C. 480—264; and 3. From the commencement of the Roman wars to their termination by the destruction of Carthage, B.C. 264—146. In the present place only the first and second of these periods will be considered, as the third period belongs wholly to a time subsequent to the rise of the Macedonian power.

a.—From the Foundation of the City to the Commencement of the Wars with Syracuse, B.C. 850—480.

Carthage was not the first Phœnician colony founded on the north African coast. Utica was certainly more ancient, and perhaps Leptis Magna and Hadrumetum. But Carthage rapidly outstripped her rivals, and became the first city of Western Africa. She had the advantage of an excellent port and a commanding geographical position, directly opposite Sicily and Italy. The soil around the city was fertile, the natives were friendly, and Carthage early became, not merely a trading settlement, but a great land power. Her people intermixed to some extent with the native Africans, and her territory, which was about co-extensive with the modern Beylik of Tunis, was occupied and cultivated mainly by a mixed race, known as Liby-Phœnices. Beyond these

limits, both to the east and west, she also wielded a certain authority, which extended to the borders of Barca and Cyrene on the one hand and to the Pillars of Hercules on the other. The coast tribes acknowledged her suzerainty and gave free march to her armies, while the commerce of the entire region was wholly in her hands. Even the other Phœnician settlements became by degrees subject to her, but rather as confederates than as absolute dependencies.

Her African dominion, completed by about B.C. 700, did not, however, for long content the ambitious state. By the close of the sixth century she had conquered Sardinia, occupied the Balearic islands, Majorca, Minorca and Ivica, made settlements in Corsica and in Spain, extended her influence over the whole of Western Sicily, and possessed herself of Madeira, the Canary Islands, Malta, Gaulos (Gozo), and Corsica. She effected her conquests partly by her naval power, which was considerable from the first, but also by means of a strong land force, raised partly from her African subjects, Phœnicians and Liby-Phœnicians, but mainly consisting of mercenaries from the countries most accessible to her, Numidia, Mauretania, Spain, Gaul, and Italy.

It was the subjection of Phœnicia Proper to Assyrian influence that gave Carthage her opportunity and raised

her to the position of the first naval and commercial power in the world. She found no rival established in the Western Mediterranean unless it were the Tyrrhenians, whose strength and skill were far inferior to her own. But, about B.C. 600—550, a new competitor appeared. The Greek City of Phocæa, in Asia Minor, sent its ships into the Western Mediterranean, opened a trade with Tartessus in Southern Spain beyond the Pillars of Hercules, founded Massilia on the coast of Gaul, and sought to establish another colony in Corsica. The intruder was equally obnoxious to both the powers in possession, and Tyrrhenia joined with Carthage in an attack on the Phocæan fleet (about B.C. 550), by which it was almost entirely destroyed; the colonisation of Corsica had to be given up, and Greece was for nearly another century well nigh excluded from the western waters. Forty years later, under its last king, Rome put ships upon the sea, but they were too few to provoke Carthaginian jealousy, and the commercial relations between the two states were settled by treaty in B.C. 508.

b.—From the Commencement of the Wars with Syracuse to the Breaking out of the First War with Rome, B.C. 480—264.

When Carthage, about B.C. 700, having established her dominion in Africa to her satisfaction, began to look

abroad for further conquests, the large island of Sicily, lying directly opposite to her shores, must have been the first region to attract her attention. But Sicily, or at any rate great part of it, seems to have been already in possession of the Greeks, whose main settlements were made in the island between B.C. 750 and 700. Carthage, however, claimed as hers, and was suffered to hold without molestation, the extreme western promontory and the parts adjacent, where the Phœnicians had had settlements from remote times. No hostilities are recorded as having broken out between the Sicilian Greeks and their Carthaginian neighbours until the year B.C. 480, when a great invasion was made under Hamilcar, the son of Mago, just at the time that Xerxes with his huge host was over-running continental Greece. The attack was met by Gelo, at Himera, and the invading army was completely routed and destroyed, Hamilcar himself perishing in the fight.

This intensely severe blow acted as a check on Carthaginian aspirations for the space of seventy years. Her main efforts were directed during this interval to the consolidation of her power in Africa. The native Libyan tribes were reduced to more complete dependence, and Carthage was relieved from the obligation of paying to them a ground-rent for the site on which she stood. The constitution was improved, and certain gains of territory made on the side of Cyrene. At last, in B.C. 409, a favourable opportunity seemed to offer

itself, and a second invasion was made under Hannibal, the grandson of Hamilcar, who hoped to avenge his grandsire's defeat.

The Carthaginians under Hannibal had at first considerable success; but in the wars which followed, with Dionysius I., B.C. 405—368, Dionysius II., B.C. 346—340, and Agathocles, B.C. 311—304, covering the space of above a century, the two powers proved so evenly balanced that scarcely any further advance was made. Carthage held about one-third of the island towards the west; the Greeks maintained possession of the other two-thirds. The Carthaginian expenditure of blood and treasure was enormous. Generally the scene of struggle was Sicily; but in the war with Agathocles, Carthage found her own soil invaded, and was for a time brought into great danger. After the death of Agathocles, B.C. 289, the Greek power in Sicily declined, and Carthage seemed about to realise her highest aspirations; but the invasion of Pyrrhus, B.C. 279, threw her back, and, when he fell, she had contracted obligations towards Hiero which effectually tied her hands. A new contest, moreover, impended. Rome was about to appear upon the scene; and Carthage paused, biding her time, and still hoping at no distant date to extend her domination over the entire island.

SEVENTH PERIOD.

FROM THE RISE OF MACEDON TO GREATNESS UNDER ALEXANDER (B.C. 336) TO THE FINAL DESTRUCTION OF THE MACEDONIAN POWER (B.C. 30).

A.—HISTORY OF MACEDON.

a.—The beginnings of the Macedonian Kingdom.

Macedon was originally one of many petty kingdoms bordering on Greece, the inhabitants of which were partly Hellenic, partly non-Hellenic. The non-Hellenic element in Macedonia seems to have been Illyrian. It was brave, but turbulent and given to drunkenness. The royal family was said to be of pure Hellenic blood; but it intermarried freely with races regarded by the Greeks as "barbarian." The royal line can be traced from about B.C. 700, when the kingdom is said to have been founded by a certain Perdiccas. The first line of kings was as follows:—

FIRST MACEDONIAN DYNASTY, of ten kings.

Abt. B.C.		Abt. B.C.	Name of King.	Supposed length of Reign.
700	—	650	1. Perdiccas I.	50 years.
650	—	620	2. Argæus	30 years.
620	—	590	3. Philip I.	30 years.
590	—	565	4. Aëropus I.	25 years.
565	—	527	5. Alcetas	38 years.
527	—	498	6. Amyntas I.	29 years.
498	—	454	7. Alexander I.	44 years.
454	—	413	8. Perdiccas II.	41 years.
413	—	399	9. Archelaus	14 years.
399	—	395	10. Orestes	4 years.

Macedonian history is almost a blank during the greater part of this time. Nothing is known of the kingdom except that it gradually increased in power and extent, absorbing Eordia and Almopia on the land side, and Pieria, Bottiæa and Mygdonia towards the coast. Amyntas I. is found seated upon the throne when Darius I. makes his expedition against Scythia. Threatened by the Persian arms about B.C. 507, Amyntas made a nominal

submission; which had, however, to be exchanged for an actual subject position about fifteen years later, on the first advance of Mardonius. Amyntas had died in the interval, and been succeeded by his son, Alexander, who lent his aid to Xerxes at the time of the Great Invasion. The repulse of the Persians by the Greeks restored Macedonia to independence; and the expansion of the kingdom, interrupted during the Persian suzerainty, can again be traced. Several inland tribes, such as the Lyncestiæ and the Eleimiots were absorbed, and the Macedonian frontier was pushed eastward as far as the Strymon. Perdiccas II. was now king, and found himself brought into hostile collision with Athens, which founded Amphipolis in B.C. 427, and endeavoured to weaken his authority in various ways. The ambition of Sitalces, king of Thrace, brought Perdiccas into serious difficulties in B.C. 429, but he skilfully warded off the dangers by an alliance and an intermarriage, which turned Sitalces into a friend from an enemy. In B.C. 424 Perdiccas revenged himself on Athens by inviting Brasidas into Chalcidicé, and succeeded in greatly crippling the Athenian power in that region. His natural son, Archelaus, who succeeded him in B.C. 413, saw the downfall of Athens, and, though licentious and a tyrant, did something for his country's greatness by the attention which he paid to the army and to the construction of forts and highways, as well as by the encouragement which he gave to literature by inviting men of letters to his court. After a time he was assas-

sinated, but still was succeeded by his son Orestes, a minor, who held the crown for four years only, when he too fell a victim to treachery—B.C. 395.

A time of confusion and anarchy now set in. The line of direct succession having failed, numerous pretenders to the crown sprang up, and conspiracies and murders were rife for the next thirty-six years. During this space of time, Macedonia had seven rulers, as will be seen by the subjoined table :—

SECOND MACEDONIAN DYNASTY, of seven kings and a r gent.

B.C.		B.C.	Name of Ruler.	Length of Reign.
395	—	394	1. Aëropus II.	1 year.
394	—	393	2. Pausanias	1 year.
393	—	392	4. Amyntas II.	1 year.
392	—	390	5. Argæus	2 years.
390	—	369	Amyntas II. (a second time)	21 years.
369	—	368	6. Alexander II.	1 year.
368	—	364	7. Ptolemy (regent)	4 years.
364	—	359	8. Perdiccas III.	5 years.

No increase of Macedonian power falls into this period. Amyntas II., who was the only monarch of the time that could ever have felt himself firmly settled in his seat, was hard pressed on the one hand by the Illyrians, on the other by Olynthus, and with difficulty maintained himself against them.

b.—*The Reign of Philip of Macedon.*

The Macedonian power was the creation of Philip II., son of Amyntas II., and brother of the two kings who preceded him upon the throne, Alexander and Perdiccas. He was a man of first-rate ability, who had grown to manhood under exceptionally favourable circumstances. Sent to Thebes as a hostage in B.C. 368, at the age of fifteen, when that state was at the height of its glory under Pelopidas and Epaminondas, he had had the advantage of studying the military system of those great commanders for the space of three years, and of making himself completely master of it. Ascending the throne at the age of twenty-four, when Macedonia was threatened at one and the same time by the Illyrians, the Pæonians and the Thracians, he had the immediate opportunity of reducing his theories to practice, and succeeded so well, that within two years he had worsted all his adversaries, and found himself free to take the aggressive in whatever quarter seemed best to him. The first victim whom he selected was

Athens. In B.C. 358, he suddenly attacked and took her colony of Amphipolis; next he captured Pydna and Potidæa. In B.C. 357 he conquered the entire coast region between the Strymon and the Nestus, including the important gold mines, which shortly yielded him a revenue of a thousand talents annually. He then engaged in war with Thessaly, and in three years (B.C. 355–352) and three expeditions conquered the entire country, together with Magnesia and Achæa Phthiotis, its dependencies. He would at once have descended on Southern Greece and conquered it, but Athens occupied Thermopylæ and repulsed him. Philip waited patiently for five years, employing his army elsewhere, especially against Olynthus. The "Sacred War" was engrossing the energies of the states of Central Greece. Philip bided his time until, despairing of success, Thebes and Athens invoked his aid to crush the unconquerable Phocians. The pass of Thermopylæ was thrown open to him, and Greece by the act accepted a master. Phocis fell. Philip was given the place of Phocis in the Amphictyonic league, and necessarily became its head (B.C. 346). Henceforth he could deal with Greece as he liked. A certain feeling of shame seems to have restrained him from at once directly attacking Athens and Thebes, when he had attained his position by concluding treaties with them. Some fresh pretext had to be waited for. Meanwhile, the interval was employed in strengthening his own power by expeditions into Illyria and Pæonia, and in weaken-

ing Athens by intrigues in Eubœa, and by actual war in the Chersonese. Attacks were also made on Perinthus and Byzantium. At last, in B.C. 338, the expected opportunity arose. A new "Sacred War," stirred up by his emissaries, broke out, and Philip was a second time called in. Thermopylæ was once more passed; the decree of the Amphictyons enforced; Nicæa, Cytinium and Elateia were occupied; Central Greece being thus treated as Macedonian territory. The danger roused Thebes and Athens to a last effort, and the Macedonian conqueror was met at Chæroneia by the full force of those states, with contingents from Corinth, Phocis and Achæa. But the Macedonian phalanx was irresistible, and the complete defeat of the allies laid Greece at Philip's feet. In B.C. 337, the Congress of Corinth accepted Philip as generalissimo of Greece, and the various states, with the one exception of Sparta, undertook to send contingents to the army which Philip designed to lead in the next year against Persia. The vanguard of the army actually crossed the straits in the spring of B.C. 336, but ere the commander could follow, he was struck down by the dagger of an assassin.

c.—The Reign of Alexander the Great.

It was scarcely expected that the young Alexander would have the vigour or the ability to execute his

father's designs. Many looked to see Macedonian power fall as suddenly as it had risen. On the death of Philip, Thrace and Illyria openly raised the standard of revolt. Greece stood expectant, ready to take advantage of the first appearance of weakness, but without committing herself by any overt act. But the young prince gave his enemies no chance. Rapidly marching at the head of a large army through Central Greece to Corinth, Alexander demanded and obtained from the deputies of the various states the same leadership as had been granted to his father. He then hastened into Thrace, defeated the Triballi and the Getæ, and even chastised some tribes beyond the Danube; after which he bent his steps south-westward and inflicted a severe defeat upon the Illyrians. It was during his absence on these expeditions that a report arose of his death; which was somewhat rashly credited, and caused Thebes to assert her freedom. The vengeance taken was heavy and prompt. Alexander suddenly appeared in Bœotia, stormed and sacked Thebes, and, after a wholesale massacre, punished the survivors by razing their city to the ground and selling them all as slaves. The signal example was a warning to the rest of Greece; and, having made it, Alexander felt that he could with safety leave the Greeks to themselves, and pass with his best troops into Asia.

In the spring of B.C. 334 the young prince crossed the Hellespont with 35,000 men, 30,000 foot and 5,000

horse. His passage was, by some inexplicable neglect on the part of Memnon the Rhodian, unopposed. A small Persian army met him on the Granicus, and was easily pushed from his path, the way into the heart of Asia Minor being thus left open. Alexander rapidly over-ran the Western provinces, but did not venture far from the coast, so long as Memnon was alive. That commander, however, died early in B.C. 333, and the Macedonian monarch no longer hesitated, but at once took the road which led to Susa and Babylon.

It was the intention of Darius to meet his assailant, as he emerged from Cilicia into Syria, on the broad plain of Antioch; but as Alexander did not appear over-anxious for an engagement, he grew impatient, and entering the pass of Issus was forced to risk a battle in that disadvantageous position, where the number of his troops was of no service to him. As a matter of course, he suffered defeat, and had to escape capture by a rapid flight, while his demoralised army dispersed itself. Alexander might have marched on Susa at once, but was too wise and foreseeing to do so. His object was conquest, and conquest is best secured by a slow and cautious advance, and by leaving no source of danger behind one. Alexander regarded it as essential to the security of his further progress, that the maritime provinces of Persia should be in his power, and her naval strength annihilated. He, therefore, proceeded from Issus against Tyre, Gaza and Egypt. Twenty

months sufficed for the reduction of these places; and in B.C. 331, having all maritime Persia in his possession, he proceeded to seek his enemy in the heart of his empire. Darius, on his part, had done all that was possible; he had collected his best troops from all parts of his dominions, had chosen and prepared the battlefield, and awaited in the broad Assyrian plain beyond the Tigris the trial of arms which would determine his own fate and the fate of Asia.

The battle of Arbela gave all Western Asia into Alexander's hands. The three capitals, Babylon, Susa and Persepolis, at once surrendered. Darius became a fugitive, and was shortly afterwards murdered by Bessus. A certain amount of resistance was made by the Eastern provinces; but it was overcome in a few years; and the desire of the conqueror was to push still further eastward and add the peninsula of Hindustan to his dominions. Had he reached the mouth of the Ganges, he would no doubt have coveted Burmah and China; but, as it was, the positive refusal of his soldiers to advance further stopped him at the Sutlej. Alexander descended the Indus, and marched back to Persia proper through Gedrosia (Beloochistan), suffering more losses from the hardships of the march than from all his military enterprises. He reached Persepolis in B.C. 324, and commenced the organisation of his huge empire. Vast and far-reaching plans were entertained by him. Babylon was to have been his capital; the

Greco-Macedonians were to have been fused with the Medo-Persians; the Greek language and Greek art were to have been carried everywhere by means of Greek colonies; commerce was to have been encouraged literature and science patronised, the East invigorated and the West enriched by their union. Further conquest was not to have been wholly abandoned. The empire was to have been rounded off by the inclusion in it of Arabia, which was inconveniently interposed between the East and West, between Egypt and Babylonia. But all these projects were brought to a sudden end by the death of their projector at Babylon, in B.C. 323, after a short illness, produced, it is probable, by the hardships of the Gedrosian march and the unhealthiness of the Chaldæan marshes.

d.—History of the "Successors" of Alexander from his death to the Battle of Ipsus, B.C. 323—301.

Alexander's death was so sudden and unexpected that no provision had been made for the succession. He had an illegitimate son, called Hercules, a boy of about ten or twelve; and he left Roxana pregnant. He had also a half-brother, called Arrhidæus, an illegitimate son of Philip. The actual direction of affairs fell necessarily into the hands of his generals, of whom Perdiccas was the chief. By them it was determined that Arrhidæus should be proclaimed king, and should

take the name of Philip, but that, if Roxana's child were a boy, the two should reign conjointly. To secure the carrying out of this arrangement, four "regents" or "guardians" were appointed out of the generals, viz., Antipater and Craterus in Europe, Perdiccas and Meleager in Asia. But the speedy murder of Meleager by Perdiccas showed the instability of all such provisional plans, and caused the leaders generally to make it their chief aim to provide for their own safety.

There would probably have been at once a general combination against Perdiccas, had he not agreed within a few weeks of Alexander's death to a partition of the satrapies among the commanders. Ten commanders received important governments, and entered upon their administration. Perdiccas remained regent of Asia, and carried on the general direction of affairs in the name of the joint-kings, Philip Arrhidæus, and Roxana's son, Alexander.

But this arrangement only for a short time deferred the evil day. The "satraps" safe in their various provinces, began to act as kings, and disallowed the authority of Perdiccas, who, feeling the insecurity of his position, contemplated seizing the empire. But his schemes were detected, and the most powerful of the "satraps" opposed them. Antipater, Craterus, Ptolemy, and Antigonus, declared war against Perdiccas in B.C. 321. Eumenes, the Cardian, supported Perdiccas;

the other satraps remained neutral. The result of the first war among the "Successors" was the defeat of Perdiccas by Ptolemy, and of Craterus by Eumenes, the death of the two defeated generals, and the assumption by Antipater of the position of sole regent. A new division of provinces followed, in which Seleucus received Babylonia (B.C. 320).

In B.C. 319, on the death of Antipater, a second war broke out among the satraps. Overlooking the claims of his son, Cassander, Antipater had bequeathed his position to Polysperchon, who accepted it. Cassander fled to Antigonus, and a league was formed between Ptolemy, Cassander and Antigonus on the one hand, against Polysperchon and Eumenes on the other. Wars followed both in Europe and in Asia. In Asia, Antigonus contended with Eumenes, and drove him from Asia Minor across Mesopotamia into Persia Proper, where his troops mutinied and slew him. In Europe, Cassander got the better of Polysperchon, and made himself complete master of Macedonia and Greece. At the same time he obtained possession of Roxana and the young Alexander (B.C. 319—316).

But now the victors fell out among themselves. Antigonus, after the death of Eumenes, let it be seen that nothing less than the entire empire of Alexander would content him. He slew Pithon, satrap of Media, drove Seleucus from Babylon, and distributed the

eastern provinces to his creatures. Consequently, in B.C. 315, a fresh league of the satraps was made against him. It included Ptolemy, Cassander, Seleucus, Asander, and Lysimachus. Antigonus's only ally was the aged Polysperchon. The war lasted three years, B.C. 315—312, and was without decided advantage to either party, its only memorable result being the recovery of Babylonia by Seleucus in B.C. 312, and the consequent selection of that date for an era by the Seleucidæ, who regarded their kingly rule as commencing from that year.

The peace made in B.C. 311 afforded the belligerents but a short breathing-space. In B.C. 310, the fourth and last "War of the Satraps" broke out. The leaders on either side were the same as before; but Antigonus was greatly aided by his son, Demetrius Poliorcetes, yet the result of the war was fatal to him. Notwithstanding the victories of Poliorcetes at Cyprus and in Greece, the allies were victorious in the end. Lysimachus and Seleucus were successful in effecting a junction of their forces in Phrygia, and in the great battle of Ipsus, B.C. 301, the ambitious Antigonus was completely defeated and slain. The dominions of Alexander were then divided afresh. Lysimachus received the greater part of Asia Minor; Cassander retained Macedonia; Ptolemy Egypt; Demetrius had Attica, the Megarid, and a large portion of the Peloponnese; Cilicia was given to Cassander's brother,

Plistarchus. But the lion's share fell to Seleucus, to whom the victory of Ipsus was mainly attributable; he received Cappadocia, part of Phrygia, Upper Syria, Mesopotamia, and the valley of the Euphrates. In the course of the war Antigonus had assumed the diadem and the title of "king;" after which his example was followed by Ptolemy, Cassander, Seleucus and Lysimachus.

B.—History of the Kingdoms into which the Macedonian Empire became broken up eventually.

I. *History of the Syrian Kingdom of the Seleucidæ,* B.C. 312—65.

The Syrian kings of this house took for their era B.C. 312, the year of the return of Seleucus to Babylon after his expulsion by Antigonus. Seleucus, however, did not really assume the royal title till about B.C. 306. He became the founder of a royal house, which held the Syrian throne for nearly two centuries and a half, and which comprised during that period no fewer than twenty sovereigns. The subjoined is a tabular view of the dynasty.

Royal House of the Seleucidæ.

B.C. B.C.	Name of King.	Length of Reign.	Contemporary Monarchs of Egypt.
312—280	1. Seleucus I.	32 years	Ptol. Soter. Ptol. Philadelphus.
280—261	2. Antiochus I.	19 years	Ptol. Philadelphus.
261—246	3. Antiochus II.	15 years	Ptol. Philadelphus.
246—226	4. Seleucus II.	20 years	Ptol. Euergetes.
226—223	5. Seleucus III.	3 years	Ptol. Euergetes.
223—187	6. Antiochus III. (the Great)	36 years	Ptol. Philopator. Ptol. Epiphanes.
187—176	7. Seleucus IV.	7 years	Ptol. Epiphanes. Ptol. Philometor.
176—164	8. Antiochus IV.	12 years	Ptol. Philometor.
164—162	9. Antiochus V.	2 years	Ptol. Philometor.
162—151	10. Demetrius I.	11 years	Ptol. Philometor.
151—146	11. Alex. Balas	5 years	Ptol. Philometor.
146—140	12. Demetrius II.	6 years	Ptol. Eupator. Ptol. Physcon.
146—143	13. Antiochus VI. (pretender)	3 years	The same.
137—129	14. Antiochus VII.	8 years	Ptol. Physcon.
129—126	Demetrius II. (restored)	3 years	Ptol. Physcon.

Royal House of the Seleucidæ *(continued)*.

B.C. B.C.	Name of King.	Length of Reign.	Contemporary Monarchs of Egypt.
126—122	15. Alex. Zabinas	4 years	Ptol. Physcon.
126—114	16. Antiochus VIII. (sole reign)	12 years	Ptol. Physcon. Ptol. Lathyrus.
114— 96	Antiochus VIII. 17. Antiochus IX.	18 years	Ptol. Lathyrus.
96 — 95	18. Seleucus V.	1 year	Ptol. Lathyrus.
95 — 90	19. Antiochus X.	5 years	Ptol. Lathyrus.
90 — 83	20. Philip	7 years	Ptol. Lathyrus.
83 — 69	Tigranes (king of Armenia)	14 years	Ptol. Lathyrus. Ptol. Alexander I. & II. Ptol. Auletes.
69 — 65	21. Antiochus XI.	4 years	Ptol. Auletes.

The Syrian kingdom, as constituted by Seleucus, was by far the largest of all those into which the empire of Alexander was partitioned out. It extended from the Halys and Mediterranean on the one hand to the Indus on the other, and reached from the Black Sea, the Caspian, and the Jaxartes to the Indian Ocean. Seleucus's first capital was Babylon, but he very soon exchanged Babylon for the new city of Seleucia, which he built upon the Tigris, and subsequently, on obtaining

Cappadocia and Syria, he made a second transfer of the seat of government to Antioch. This transfer to a site at one extremity of a long straggling empire weakened it generally, and resulted, as might have been expected, in the early loss of the eastern provinces. Seleucus, however, and his successors were mainly bent on contending with the western Macedonian powers—those in Egypt, Asia Minor, Macedon and Greece, and thought their presence needed in the region which was the scene of action. Seleucus I. warred with Demetrius in Cilicia, with Lysimachus in Asia Minor, and with the Macedonians in Europe. He made Demetrius prisoner, defeated Lysimachus (who fell in the battle) at Corupedion, took possession of all Asia Minor, and was attempting the conquest of Macedonian Thrace when he was murdered by Ptolemy Ceraunus, who made himself king of Macedon (B.C. 280). Antiochus I., son and successor of Seleucus, was engaged for some years in hostilities with Zipœtes and Nicomedes, kings of Bithynia, and then with the Gauls, whom Nicomedes called in to his assistance. Though he defeated the Gauls on one occasion (B.C. 275) yet they deprived him of North-Western Phrygia, which became Galatia, while he also lost territory in North-Western Lydia to Eumenes of Pergamus. In B.C. 264 he made an unsuccessful expedition against Egypt, and in B.C. 261 was slain in a battle with the Gauls near Ephesus. His son, Antiochus II. (Theus), who succeeded him, was a weak and profligate prince. In his reign the two

north-eastern provinces, Bactria and Parthia, detached themselves. He warred with varying success against Ptolemy Philadelphus, and was finally murdered by his wife, Laodicé, whom he had first repudiated and then restored to favour. The Syrian empire sank still lower under Seleucus II. (Callinicus), who reigned from B.C. 246 to B.C. 226. In his war with Ptolemy Euergetes, B.C. 245—241, he lost almost the whole of Asia beyond the Euphrates, though these provinces afterwards reverted to him. Subsequently, B.C. 237, he lost Hyrcania to Parthia. A civil war raged for many years between himself and his brother, Antiochus Hierax, during which Attalus of Pergamus made himself master of most of Asia Minor. Seleucus died by a fall from his horse in B.C. 226. Seleucus III. (Ceraunus) followed, but reigned only three years, B.C. 226—223. He was assassinated by his mutinous soldiers in an expedition which he had undertaken against Attalus.

Hitherto Syria had only been brought into contact with powers with which she was tolerably equally matched, and, though she had lost territory, might reasonably expect to retain what she still possessed, or even to recover some of her losses. But a time was now come when she would meet her destined master. Antiochus III., commonly called "the Great," began his reign under favourable omens. He put down the important rebellions of Molo in the east and Achæus in the west, checked the progress of the Parthians and

Bactrians, restored his frontier towards India, drove the Egyptians from Asia, and even possessed himself of a portion of Europe. But his ambition carried him too far. His European conquests brought him into contact with Rome, who shortly declared herself his enemy. Defeated at Thermopylæ, he fell back upon Asia, collected all his available troops, and stood at bay near Magnesia. There the two Scipios signally defeated him in a great battle, the first fought by the Romans in Asia, an earnest and an omen of the future. Antiochus had to submit to the loss of a large slice of territory, given to his neighbour, Eumenes of Pergamus, to a limitation of his forces, and to the payment of an immense war indemnity. He perished soon afterwards in a tumult in Elymaïs, whither he had gone to collect money by plundering temples (B.C. 187).

The decline of Syria now proceeded at a more rapid rate. Murders and revolts rapidly succeeded one another. Seleucus IV. (Philopator) who succeeded Antiochus the Great, abstained wholly from war and was assassinated after a reign of eleven years. Antiochus VI. (Epiphanes), his uncle, succeeded, and reigned twelve years, during which he warred with Egypt and Armenia, but made no permanent impression on either country. Egypt would perhaps have yielded to him, but Rome interposed her veto, and prevented him from obtaining any profit from his successes. Instead of improving the position of Syria, he raised her up a

fresh enemy by his cruelties towards the Jewish people, which thenceforth was a thorn in the side of the Syrian kingdom. The revolt of the Maccabees, B.C. 168, led on to complete Jewish independence, which was finally established about B.C. 109. Antiochus perished, like his brother, Antiochus the Great, as he was plundering temples in Elymaïs, not, however, from violence, but from an access of superstitious fear (B.C. 164). His son, Antiochus V. (Eupator), a mere boy, reigned two years under the tutelage of the Regent, Lysias, when he was put to death by Demetrius, son of Seleucus IV., who mounted the throne, B.C. 162. This prince was engaged during the greater part of his reign in a civil war with Alex. Balas, a *soi-disant* son of Epiphanes, who finally overcame him and slew him in battle. Balas then reigned from B.C. 151 to 146, but found a rival in Demetrius II. (Nicator), the son of Demetrius I. (Soter), who, by the assistance of Ptolemy Philometor, defeated him, and drove him into Arabia, where he was murdered. Demetrius II. then became king, but had to contend for his throne with Diodotus of Apameia, who first brought forward a son of Balas, and proclaimed him king under the title of Antiochus VI. (B.C. 146), and then set up for king himself under the name of Trypho (B.C. 143). Demetrius carried on the war with Trypho till B.C. 140, when he was called away to the East to meet a Parthian invasion, and committed the further prosecution of the civil war to his wife, Cleopatra. Soon afterwards the Parthians took him prisoner, and Cleopatra, hard

pressed by her enemy, called in the aid of Antiochus of Sida, her husband's brother, married him, and associated him as king under the title of Antiochus VII. (Sidetes). Antiochus VI. defeated Trypho and slew him, reduced the Jews to subjection, and made an expedition against the Parthians, who, to baffle it, released Demetrius II. and sent him home. They then attacked Sidetes, and destroyed his army with its commander. Demetrius had a second reign, from B.C. 129 to 126, but Alex. Zabinas, a professed son of Balas, claimed the throne, and being supported by Ptolemy Physcon, invaded Syria, defeated Demetrius near Damascus in B.C. 126, captured him, and put him to death. He then reigned over certain portions of Syria till B.C. 122, while Cleopatra and her son, Antiochus VIII. (Grypus), were the sovereigns of the remainder. In B.C. 121 Grypus had his mother killed for plotting against his life, and Trypho having poisoned himself the year previously, Grypus became sole king—a position which he maintained till B.C. 114, when his brother, Antiochus IX. (Cyzicenus) claimed the crown, and began a civil war which lasted, with a short interruption, for nineteen years, and brought Syria to the brink of ruin. The Syrian kingdom was now included within Taurus on the north, the Euphrates on the east, and Palestine on the south. Even within these limits there was disintegration. The coast towns, Seleuceia, Tyre, Sidon, assumed independence. Cilicia revolted. The Arabs ravaged Syria on the east, and the Egyptians on the

Central and Southern Italy, known as the Sabines or the Samnites. The Samnites, whose main seat at this time was the upland territory of the Abruzzi, held in subjection the people of the adjacent lowlands, the Campanians, Lucanians, and Apulians. These subject tribes had various complaints against their masters; and about B.C. 340 the Campanians, who adjoined on Latium, offered to transfer their allegiance to Rome, if Rome would protect them against Samnium. Rome caught at the offer, and the first Samnite war began, Rome, Latium and Campania fighting on the one side, Samnium alone upon the other. Samnium was, of course, overmatched; but within a year or two her antagonists quarrelled—Latium set up new claims, and Rome, resisting them, hastily made peace with the Samnites and turned her arms against the Latins.

The "Great Latin War" lasted only three years (B.C. 337—335), and was virtually decided in the first campaign by the victories of Mount Vesuvius and of Trifanum. The war then lingered on for two years through the stubborn resistance of the several Latin cities; but resistance was finally crushed in B.C. 335.

Naturally Rome would now have renewed her attack on Samnium, but she was restrained by fears of revolt on the part of Latium, and also by a danger from abroad. In B.C. 331, Alexander of Epirus, the uncle of Alexander the Great, invaded Italy, and

threatened all the Italic races with subjection. Rome felt herself compelled to wait and see what impression he would make, nursing her own strength the while. When, about B.C. 325, it appeared that he was unable to effect anything considerable, she took up her dropped policy, and by unprovoked attacks on Samnite dependencies provoked the Second Samnite War.

The Second Samnite War was the great duel between the two chief races of Italy, and occupied the space of 21 years—from B.C. 323 to 303 inclusively. The issue was determined by the three great battles of the Caudine Forks, of Lantulæ, and of Cinna. Of these the first and second were Samnite victories, and seemed to presage Samnite success in the struggle. But the third was a crushing Samnite defeat, from which the nation never recovered. That the war lingered on for nine years was owing, partly to Samnite stubborness, but also to the distraction caused by other Italic powers, which, alarmed at the Roman successes, took up arms in a desultory fashion. Etruria in B.C. 309; Umbria in B.C. 308; the Marsi and Peligni in B.C. 307; the Sallentini in B.C. 306; the Æqui and Hernici in B.C. 305. United, these many enemies might have given Rome a serious check; attacking her as they did, separately, their efforts were wholly unavailing.

A Latin revolt occurred early in the course of the war (B.C. 322) Tusculum, Velitræ, and Privernum takin

the lead. It was terminated by conceding to the greater part of Latium full Roman citizenship. Henceforth Latium was perfectly contented, and remained faithful to Rome through all her difficulties and struggles. Not one Latin, it is said, deserted her cause during the tremendous crisis of the Second Punic War.

An interval of five years only—B.C. 303–298—separated the Third from the Second Samnite War. It was employed by the Samnites in gaining allies, by the Romans in completing the subjection of the central region of Italy. The Samnites would have gladly prolonged the interval, so as to have finished all their arrangements, but Rome precipitated the war in her own interest.

The Third Samnite War was the contest of confederated Italy against Rome. It lasted only eight years (B.C. 298—290), and was decided by the battle of Sentinum, B.C. 295. Samnium, Etruria, Cisalpine Gaul, and Umbria united their forces under Gellius Egnatius, but were first divided by the skilful policy of Rome, and then completely defeated at Sentinum in the Apennines. The confederacy was broken up—the recent allies were attacked separately. In B.C. 290 the Samnites could resist no longer, and submitted to their Roman conquerors.

The complete subjection of Italy to Rome would

naturally have followed within a few years, had not the peninsula been once more invaded by a Greek prince. Invited by Tarentum, which was already threatened by Rome, Pyrrhus, King of Epirus, in B.C. 280, crossed over into Italy with an army of above 25,000 men and 25 elephants. The "War with Pyrrhus" followed. Defeated in two battles, at Heracleia (B.C. 280), and at Ausculum (B.C. 279), the Romans still stoutly resisted and would not hear of peace. When, in B.C. 278, Pyrrhus crossed over into Sicily, they at once took the offensive, and recovered almost all their losses. On the return of Pyrrhus to Italy, in B.C. 276, they met him at Beneventum, and gave him a signal defeat. The Epirote prince returned to Greece, and the war came to a close.

The subjugation of peninsular Italy was rapidly completed between the years B.C. 276 and 265. Tarentum surrendered in B.C. 272. Lucania and Bruttium submitted in the same year. The Sallentini and Messapii were conquered in B.C. 266; Picenum in B.C. 268. In B.C. 266 Umbria submitted; in B.C. 265, Etruria. By the end of that year Rome was mistress of all peninsular Italy from the Macra to Tarentum and Rhegium.

To hold her Italian conquests, she planted everywhere colonies. Signia was colonised in B.C. 493; Velitræ in B.C. 492; Norba in 490; Cora and Suessa Pometia about the same time; Antium in B.C. 465;

Ardea in 439; Lavici in 415; Circeii in 391; Vitellia before 390; Sutrium in 383; Satricum in 382; Nepete in 380; Setia in 379; Antium colonised a second time in B.C. 335; Cales founded B.C. 332; Anxur, B.C. 336; Fregellæ, 325; Luceria, 312; Suessa Aurunca and Pontiæ, 311; Casinum and Interamna, 310; Saticula, about the same time; Sora and Alba Fucentia, in B.C. 302; Carseoli in 301; Narnia in 299; Minturnæ and Sinuessa in 296; Venusia in 291; Hatria in 289; Sena in 283; Pæstum and Cosa in 273; Beneventum and Ariminum in 268; Firmium and Castrum Novum in 264; Æsernia in 263. Each colony was a Roman post, held by colonists who were Romans, and formed in fact a Roman garrison, which at once held military occupation of the tract wherein it was situated and introduced into that tract the Latin language, Roman ideas and Roman civilisation.

c.—The Republic from the commencement of the wars with Carthage to the beginning of the internal troubles under the Gracchi, B.C. 264—133.

The advance of Rome into the position of mistress of Southern Italy, the simultaneous growth of her naval power, and her proximity to Sicily, naturally excited the fears and the jealously of Carthage, which had long been bent on retaining in her own hands the absolute mastery of the Western Mediterranean; but Carthage would scarcely have gone to war with Rome, had she

not been provoked by a signal act of aggression. Invited by a band of marauders, who had seized Messana, and were obnoxious alike to the Greeks and the Carthaginians, Rome effected a lodgment in Sicily, B.C. 264. At first the Carthaginians and Greeks united to resist her. But in B.C. 263, the Romans succeeded in winning over Hiero of Syracuse to their side; and the example thus set was followed shortly afterwards by the other Greek cities. The war became one between the Romans and Sicilian Greeks on the one hand, and Carthage upon the other. Its chief scene was Sicily; and its result was determined mainly by naval superioity. Rome, though comparatively speaking new to the sea, gains in the course of the war three naval victories—that of Duilius at Mylæ, that of Regulus at Ecnomus, and that of Lutatius at the Ægatian Islands. By the first she obtains full power to throw her armies into Sicily; the second enables her to invade Africa; and the third breaks the spirit of her enemy and induces her to sue for peace. By land Rome is far less successful. She loses an army under Regulus in Africa, and makes but little progress in Sicily. However, the honours of the war on the whole remain with her. At its close Carthage has to evacuate Sicily, and to pay Rome 2,200 talents as a war indemnity.

An interval of twenty-three years (B.C. 241—218) separated the First from the Second Punic War. It was employed by both powers in strenuous efforts to

consolidate and extend their power. Rome, in B.C. 238, annexed Sardinia, and soon afterwards Corsica. From B.C. 238 to 234 she warred with the Ligurians and the Boii in North-Western Italy. In B.C. 229 she chastised the Illyrian pirates, and in B.C. 228 assumed a protectorate over the Greek states of Corcyra, Apollonia and Epidamnus. In B.C. 225—222 she conquered the important region of Cisalpine Gaul, and thickly planted it with colonies—Placentia, Cremona, Mutina, Parma, Mediolanum, Brixia, Comum, Verona, Mantua. The "Flaminian Way" connected the new conquests with the capital. In B.C. 219 she punished Demetrius of Pharos and increased her influence on the Grecian side of the Adriatic.

Meanwhile Carthage, having put down a serious revolt of her mercenaries, resolved to compensate herself for her losses in the Mediterranean by an extension of her land power, and in seventeen years—B.C. 236–220—effected the complete subjection of Southern and South-Eastern Spain. A large warlike population—Celtic and Iberic—thus passed under her sway, while her revenue was greatly increased by the produce of the rich silver mines discovered near Carthagena, which were worked with skill and energy.

In B.C. 219 Hannibal gave the signal for the commencement of the Second Punic War by laying siege to Saguntum. The naval struggle having gone against

Carthage, it was his object to crush Rome by land. The powerful veteran army which he commanded, could readily reach Italy through the friendly Gallic tribes, and would find in the plain of the Po a newly-conquered people eager to rise. He was confident of defeating any Roman army that could be brought into the field against him, and expected that then the Italian races under the yoke of Rome would declare themselves on his side. His expectations were realised to a large extent. By the three battles of the Trebia, of Lake Trasimene, and of Cannæ, he established the superiority of the Carthaginian arms, and reduced the Romans to defend themselves behind walls or by a guerilla warfare. The defection, which he had looked for, took place, but not perhaps to the extent of his hopes. All Italy, from Campania and Samnium southwards, embraced his cause, but Rome still had the support of Etruria, Umbria, Picenum, Sabina, and above all of Latium. Consequently she was able to prolong the struggle, and as the naval superiority of Rome prevented Carthage from sending reinforcements to Hannibal by sea, his army was continually dwindling through casualties and disease, while her forces could be recruited to almost any extent. Hannibal's hopes, therefore, after Cannæ, rested mainly on his brother, Hasdrubal, who was instructed to bring to his aid a powerful army from Spain. This hope was destroyed by the battle of the Metaurus, the turning-point of the war, B.C. 207. Rome at first seems scarcely to have

realised the importance of her victory, but in B.C. 204 she took heart, and sent an army across the sea to Africa. Scipio was unsuccessful in that year, but the next year he carried all before him, and forced Carthage to recall Hannibal from Italy. The battle of Zama followed in B.C. 202, and Carthage was struck to the ground. By the peace of B.C. 201 she became a dependent Roman ally.

Simultaneously with the Second Punic occurred the First Macedonian War. Hannibal, anxious to distract the Romans and weaken their efforts against himself, made alliance with Philip III. of Macedon in B.C. 215, and invited him to invade Italy. Philip was quite willing to have done as Hannibal wished, but the Romans found him ample employment on the eastern side of the Adriatic, and after contending with him for seven years, in conjunction with their allies, the Ætolians, the Spartans, and Attalus of Pergamus, consented to terms of peace, B.C. 207. The peace was, of course, not much more than an armed truce. Rome granted it because she wished to concentrate her whole attention on the war with Carthage, but she was not likely to forget, or to forgive, the attack made upon her in her hour of utmost danger.

Accordingly, no sooner was the peace of B.C. 201 concluded with Carthage than preparations against Macedonia began. The Second Macedonian War com-

menced B.C. 200. An account of it has already been given in the history of Macedon and Greece after the time of Alexander. It was terminated B.C. 197 by the battle of Cynoscephalæ, in which the superiority of the "legion" to the "phalanx" was demonstrated in the eye of the whole world. Rome might, after Cynoscephalæ, have absorbed Macedonia and Greece, but she was not prepared as yet for so large an extension of her empire.

The power of Rome was, in fact, not yet so consolidated in the west as to allow her to contemplate seriously an enlargement of territory towards the east. War with the Gauls of Upper Italy—a *remanet* from the war with Carthage—still occupied her, and was not terminated till B.C. 191. Spain, ceded by Carthage in B.C. 201, was far from being thoroughly subdued, the Lusitani and Celtiberi still offering a stout resistance. Liguria remained unconquered, and in Sardinia and Corsica the barbarous natives gave constant trouble to their more civilised masters. It was not without reluctance that Rome found herself, in B.C. 192, compelled to turn her attention once more to the East by the proceedings of Antiochus the Great in the Hellenic peninsula. Antiochus, having consolidated his power in Asia, crossed into Europe, B.C. 192, at the head of an army of 10,000 men, with the object of taking all Greece under his protection and thrusting the Romans back upon Italy. Rome promptly met him by landing 25,000 men on the coast of Epirus, dispersed his army at

Thermopylæ, and forced him to retreat to Asia. There was then a brief contest for the mastery at sea, which was decided in favour of the Romans by the two battles of Aspendus and Corycus. The invasion of Asia followed, Antiochus was completely defeated at Magnesia, B.C. 190, and Syria lay at the mercy of the Roman conquerors. But the reasons which had prevented Rome from absorbing either Macedonia or Greece told with increased force against any attempt to take possession of territory in Asia. She therefore contented herself with enriching her allies, Rhodes and Pergamus, at the expense of Syria, with taking a money payment of about three millions sterling from her defeated adversary, and with so establishing her prestige that she was thenceforth looked on as a sort of final arbiter in all Western Asiatic quarrels.

After the interlude of the Syrian war, Rome returned to the serious business of putting down resistance to her authority in Spain, Sardinia, Corsica and Liguria. The greater part of Spain was reduced to subjection about B.C. 178, Corsica and Sardinia in B.C. 173, Liguria in B.C. 170; and her home interests being secured, the time had evidently come when she might cast her eyes further afield, and contemplate more distant conquests.

The enemy which especially challenged her attention was Macedonia. Perseus had succeeded Philip, and had greatly strengthened himself by numerous

alliances. The protectorate of all Greece seemed about to fall into his hands. Rome had to determine, about B.C. 172, whether she would interfere to check his progress, or relinquish all pretension to influence in the Hellenic peninsula. As usual, she decided on the bolder course, and the Third Macedonian War followed. At the end of three years (B.C. 168) victory declared itself on the side of Rome, and in the battle of Pydna the original kingdom of Alexander perished. Rome, though she did not at once annex Macedonia, did so within a few years; and having driven Achæa to take up arms, B.C. 146, absorbed all Greece as well.

About the same time she picked a quarrel with the enemy which she could never forgive for nearly effecting her destruction, Carthage. The persistence of Cato in the cuckoo cry—"delenda est Carthago" prevailed. In a four years' war—B.C. 149 to 146—the unfortunate victim was crushed, and the home territory of Carthage became the "province of Africa."

While the "Third Punic War" was running its course, revolt broke out in Spain under Viriathus, who maintained the rebellion with varying success until B.C. 140, when the Romans procured his assassination. The Lusitani, upon this, submitted; but the Numantians continued to resist, defeated Roman armies in B.C. 141, 138, 137 and 136; but were finally subjected by Sc. Æmilianus in B.C. 133, after a siege which ter-

minated in their setting fire to their city and burying themselves in its ashes.

In the same year Rome obtained the kingdom of Pergamus as a legacy from Attalus III., and constituted it a Roman province. The provinces were now Sicily, Sardinia and Corsica, Hispania Ulterior, Hispania Citerior, Gallia Cisalpina, Liguria, Macedonia, Achæa, "Africa," or the old territory of Carthage, and "Asia," or the kingdom of Pergamus.

d.—The Republic from the beginning of the internal troubles under the Gracchi to the establishment of the Empire under Augustus, B.C. 133 *to* B.C. 30.

Internal trouble and commotion had been a characteristic of the Roman Republic almost from its first establishment. In the earlier period—from about B.C. 492 to 312—the contention had lain between a certain number of privileged families (*gentes*), who claimed the title of "Patricians," and the entire body of the *plebs*, or commonalty. By degrees the barrier which separated between the two "orders" was broken down, and the richer portion of the commonalty placed itself on the same level with the old aristocratic families, intermarried with them and was acknowledged as their equals, socially as well as politically. But the removal of this line of demarcation was followed by the upgrowth

of another, of which the very nature of things forbade the obliteration, and which at Rome tended as time went on to become more and more sharply defined. This was the division between rich and poor, between a comparatively small body of wealthy capitalists, and the great mass of those who had little property and supported themselves mainly by the labour of their own hands. The capitalist class, having by its wealth great influence, and an excellent organisation, practically monopolised office, which was unpaid, and which was only to be gained by a large expenditure of money. Office brought with it the means of increasing wealth, since the official class kept in its own hands the main sources of wealth, which were three only—the occupation of the domain lands on a large scale, the farming of the revenue, and the administration of the provinces. Commerce was open to the commonalty; but, in the simple state of society which still prevailed, it was difficult to make a fortune by shop-keeping; and foreign trade, through the prevalence of piracy in the Mediterranean, was too risky for many to engage in it.

Hitherto the danger which had often threatened the State from the discontent of the poorer classes had been met mainly by the Roman system of colonisation. As Rome was always conquering new regions, and as upon each conquest the subjected state forfeited to the conqueror a large portion, generally one-third, of its territory, there were ample means of relieving the

impoverished classes by planting them as colonists upon the lands thus forfeited. This practice was pursued steadily for a long term of years—from about B.C. 312 to 177—and the pressure of poverty at Rome was thus kept down and alleviated, the colonists, who were occasionally as many as 20,000 at one time, being drafts from the poorest parts of the Roman population. Another mode of relief which had suggested itself, and which had at one time (B.C. 364) been made compulsory by law, was the employment of the poorer sort of Roman citizens as agricultural labourers on the large estates held of the State by the upper classes. But by the time of the Gracchi, the law had fallen into desuetude, and the employment had ceased, the State-tenants (*possessores*) finding it more convenient and more economical, to cultivate their estates by slave labour, which was abundant and cheap. Since B.C. 177, moreover, for a space of 44 years, no colony had been sent out, the idea of planting colonies out of Italy having, apparently, occurred to no one.

The measures brought forward by Ti. Sempronius Gracchus in B.C. 133, were intended for the alleviation of the existing distress, and for the invigoration of the State by the substitution over great part of Italy, of free cultivators of the small yeoman class for gangs of disaffected slaves. He proposed, (1) That no State-tenant should be allowed to occupy more than 500 jugers of the domain land; (2) That the portion of

the domain which would be vacated in consequence of this limitation should be given in allotments to the poorer citizens; (3) That these allotments, when once made, should be inalienable; (4) That to compensate the State-tenants for their losses on improvements made on the lands which they gave up, the 500 jugers which they retained should become their absolute property; (5) That a standing commission of three persons should be appointed to carry out the new arrangements.

The selfish interests of the rich were naturally arrayed against these propositions. They were violently opposed, but became law notwithstanding. Before, however, they could be carried out, the aristocrats with Scipio Nasica at their head, made a violent attack upon Gracchus in the Forum in open day, and murdered him with 300 of his adherents. Soon afterwards, B.C. 129, the senate quashed the commission, and the further execution of the law was suspended.

But the troubles were not yet over. C. Gracchus, in B.C. 123, took up the cause advocated by his brother, caused his "Agrarian law" to be re-enacted with certain modifications, and carried two other most important enactments, one requiring the State to distribute corn at almost a nominal price to all needy citizens, and the other constituting the knights instead of the senate, the body to choose *judices* or

jurors. He also established the precedent of founding colonies beyond the bounds of Italy, by sending out one, in B.C. 122, to Carthage, which was followed by one to Aquæ Sextiæ in the same year, and by another to Narbo in B.C. 118. In his third tribunate, having proposed a great extension of the Roman citizenship, either to all the Latin colonies or to all free Italians, he lost his popularity, and was set upon by the partisans of the senate and murdered. At the same time, 3,000 of his supporters were massacred either in the streets or in prison.

A tranquil period followed, during which foreign wars once more occupied the attention of the State. In B.C. 121 Southern Gaul was conquered, and the colonies founded which have been already mentioned. In B.C. 118, disturbances broke out in Africa, where the ambition of Jugurtha forced Rome to interfere in order to check him. The war lasted from B.C. 111 to 106. It brought to the front two great men, Marius and Sulla. Rome's victory was tarnished by the venality which gave Jugurtha impunity in B.C. 111, and by the barbarity, which put him to death, though a captive, in B.C. 104.

Before the war with Jugurtha was over, another war, far more important, had begun. The Cimbri and Teutones, issuing from the forests beyond the Rhine and Danube, suddenly appeared in vast numbers in

the tract between those streams and the Alps, and carried all before them. The native tribes joined their standard, and it was not long ere they made their way into Italy and Gaul. In B.C. 113, a Roman army was swept away by a horde of Cimbri in Istria. In B.C. 109 another was defeated in Transalpine Gaul. Other defeats followed in B.C. 107 and 105. The war went wholly against the Romans until Marius was entrusted with the conduct of it. By two great victories, at Aquæ Sextiæ in B.C. 102, and at Vercellæ in B.C. 101, he completely broke the power of the barbarians, killing 290,000 of them, and making 150,000 of them prisoners. Italy was freed from barbarian attack for the space of three centuries and a half, and Marius was raised by his successes to an eminence never before attained by a Roman citizen.

If Marius had possessed the ability of Julius Cæsar, he might have anticipated his work, and made himself permanent head of the State. But he had no fixed aim and no fixed principles to guide him in his choice of means. He allied himself with the extreme democratic party, represented by Saturninus and Glaucia, but deserted them at the last moment and allowed them to be put to death. Disgusted by the senatorial triumph, he went (B.C. 99) into voluntary banishment, leaving the conduct of affairs to the aristocrats. Tranquillity was, under these circumstances maintained till B.C. 91, when a new

champion of the claims of the Italians appeared in the person of M. Livius Drusus. The aristocrats murdered Drusus, the disappointed Italians rebelled, and the "Social War" was the result. Eight nations—the Marsi, Marrucini, Peligni, Vestini, Picentini, Samnites, Apuli and Lucani joined in the revolt. Corfinium was made the capital of the league, which presented itself on its coins as "Italia," or confederate Italy. The league was successful at first, and there seemed to be a probability that the northern Italians would join it, but Rome prudently averted such a crisis by freely conferring the citizenship first on all Italians who had taken no part in the war, next on all who should at once withdraw from it, and thirdly even on those who had resisted to the bitter end, the Lucanians and the Samnites (B.C. 88).

The circumstances of the Social War led to the depression of Marius and to the exaltation of Sulla. The latter had distinguished himself in the war; the former, whose sympathies were with the rebels, had gained no laurels. Sulla consequently became the hero of the hour, and was entrusted with the conduct of the war about to be waged with Mithridates; while Marius felt himself passed over, and at once determined on revenge. By a skilful arrangement of the new voters in the tribes, he became all-powerful in the comitia, and induced them to rescind the appointment of Sulla and transfer the command to himself. But it is dangerous

to provoke the master of many legions. Sulla was already at the head of his army, and, instead of submitting to the mandate of the people, he determined to oppose it in arms. His troops marched upon the capital, entered it in hostile fashion, and killed all who resisted. Marius with his chief followers fled; and Sulla, having arranged matters at Rome according to his pleasure, set out for the East, to contend with Mithridates, B.C. 87.

The course of the Mithridatic struggle has been already traced. Sulla having quitted Rome to conduct it, his adversaries took heart. In the absence of Marius, the direction of affairs fell to Cinna, whose violence shortly re-lighted the flames of civil war. Marius was recalled from exile, Rome again taken, and this time treated as a city conquered from a public enemy. The friends of Sulla were butchered; their houses plundered; their wives and daughters dishonoured. A reign of terror was inaugurated, which lasted several months. But the death of Marius, early in B.C. 86, put a stop to the worst horrors. Cinna exercised a species of dictatorship till B.C. 85, when Carbo succeeded him, and began preparations to resist Sulla, whose return from the East was now looked for.

Sulla landed in Italy in B.C. 83, at the head of a veteran army of 40,000 men. He was joined at once

by Metellus, Pompey and Crassus. The Marian forces were gathered to oppose him under Carbo and the young Marius, while his own army received large accessions from various quarters. The great struggle came in B.C. 82. The Marians had collected together 200,000 men, which were disposed in two armies, one under Carbo resting on Clusium, the other under the young Marius on Præneste. Sulla attacked his younger adversary first, defeated him at Angiportus, and shut him up in the Latin city. He then marched against Carbo, passing through Rome, which opened its gates to him, on his way. Carbo offered a stout resistance, but was gradually weakened by the superior skill of his opponent. At last Marius, reinforced by the Italians under Pontius Telesinus, effected a junction with the dwindled forces of Carbo near Rome, and a final battle was fought at the Colline Gate, wherein the Marians were, after a desperate struggle, completely defeated by their adversary. Sulla remained absolute master of the State. He at once showed the stuff of which he was made by massacreing in cold blood 6,000 Samnite prisoners. He then put to death all the leaders in the late war, every relation of Marius that could be found, and thousands of the Roman *bourgeoisie* and of the disaffected Italians. "Proscription" was for the first time introduced. Lists of those whom it was desirable to remove were made out—at Rome 3,000 perished—at Præneste 12,000—and a proportionate number in almost every Italian city.

Sulla then set himself to give Rome a new constitution. He gave to the senate the sole power of initiating legislation and of appointing jurors; reduced the tribunate to a shadow; made the pontiffs and augurs into close corporations to be kept up by "co-optation;" restored the *lex annalis*, which required offices to be held in a certain order with fixed intervals between; and re-modelled the senate, the tribes, and the centuries, by excluding from and admitting to each whomsoever he pleased. Having made these arrangements, as dictator, in the course of three years (B.C. 82—80), in B.C. 79 he astonished the world by abdicating and retiring to Puteoli, where he died shortly afterwards (B.C. 78).

The constitution of Sulla remained in force for ten years only—from B.C. 80 to B.C. 70. Rome was occupied during this interval by three wars of considerable importance. Sertorius, a Marian of distinction, fled to Spain in B.C. 83, and contrived after a time to establish himself in the south in a small independent kingdom. Metellus was sent against him, B.C. 79, but found himself unable to effect anything. Sertorius daily grew in power, till almost the whole peninsula acknowledged his rule. A government was established in which Spaniards and Romans had equal shares. In B.C. 77, Perperna joined Sertorius, who now aspired to impose his will on Rome, leagued himself with Mithridates, and thought of invading Italy. Pompey and Metellus were

employed against him, but without success. At last, in B.C. 72, Sertorius having become harsh and tyrannical, Perperna murdered him and took the command. He found himself, however, no match for Pompey, who completely defeated him and brought the contest to an end within a few weeks.

The second war was that with the gladiators. In B.C. 73, Spartacus, a Thracian chief, who had been forced to become a gladiator, raised the standard of revolt at Capua, and in an incredibly short time found himself at the head of an army of 100,000 men. With these he resisted all the forces that Rome could bring against him for two entire years, ravaging Italy at his pleasure and even threatening Rome itself. Jealousy, however, broke out between himself and his lieutenants, and in B.C. 71, Crassus brought the war to a close by a great victory over the gladiators near Brundusium. Spartacus fell in the battle.

The third was the "Second Mithridatic War," which broke out through the aggressive movements of Mithridates in B.C. 74. This war was at first committed to Lucullus, who conducted it for eight years amid alternate victory and defeat. It was still continuing, when, at Rome, on the termination of the war with Spartacus, events occurred which brought the Sullæan constitution to an end, and launched Rome once more on the troubled waters of political contention.

Pompey and Crassus, having trampled out the gladiatorial rebellion, forced their appointment to the consulate, despite the *lex annalis*, and, having so done, proceeded to undo the rest of the Syllæan legislation and restore something like the old condition of things. The initiative of legislation in the tribes was again permitted to the tribunes, the censorship was restored and the senate "purged"; the appointment of the jurors was placed in the hands of three bodies, the senate, the knights and the tribunes of the treasury, and the corruption of the nobles was exposed by the prosecution of Verres. Cicero joined the "moderates," as the party of Pompey and Crassus may be called, while Cæsar at the age of forty made his first entrance on political life as an adherent of the party, though with somewhat more advanced views, as might be looked for in the nephew of Marius and the son-in-law of Cinna. The recognised leader of the party was Pompey.

After a brief pause, Pompey, in B.C. 67, obtained his appointment to an extraordinary command by the Gabinian law. He was to conduct a war against the pirates of the Mediterranean, and was to have authority over all its coasts to a distance of 50 miles from the sea. These powers he used unexceptionably, exercising them with great judgment, and completely reducing the pirates within the space of three months. The precedent set by the Gabinian law was then followed by the Manilian, which committed to Pompey the Mithridatic war for a vague term, "until he had brought it to an end." Pompey, in B.C. 66, set out for the East, made his treaty with Phraates of Parthia, defeated Mithridates, and, in B.C. 65, drove him from his kingdom. He then conquered the rest of Asia within the Euphrates, made himself master of the kingdom of the Seleucidæ without a blow, besieged and took Jerusalem, and entered the Holy of Holies. After this he "arranged" the East; made Syria, Bithynia and Pontus into provinces, gave Cappadocia to Ariobarzanes I., Judæa to Hyrcanus, and allowed Pharnaces, the son of Mithridates, to retain the Crimea (B.C. 64-3). In B.C. 62 he returned home in a triumphal progress and reached Rome early in B.C. 61.

Meanwhile, the State had been brought into the extremest danger by a profligate adventurer, L. Sergius Catilina. Catilina's conspiracy was crushed by Cicero (B.C. 63), who was consul, but with some disregard of legal forms, which afterwards cost him dear. Cæsar, suspected of complicity in the conspiracy, cleared himself, and, in B.C. 61, obtained the government of the Further Spain. Pompey on his return was suspected by the senate of treasonable designs and sedulously thwarted by them in every measure that he proposed. Hence he came to a private arrangement with Crassus and Cæsar, B.C. 60, the three banding themselves together against the senate and the senatorial party. This arrangement has been

inappropriately called "the First Triumvirate." To cement the union, Pompey took to wife, Julia, Cæsar's daughter.

Cæsar now set himself to work his way to the foremost place in the State. He felt that he could not rival Pompey until he had gained some great military success, and that he could not hope to contend with him successfully in arms until he had conciliated to himself the affections of a powerful army. He therefore boldly left Pompey and Crassus to do as they liked at Rome, and, after discharging the consular office in B.C. 59, accepted the government of the two Gauls and of Illyricum for a term of five years. Crassus and Pompey, who remained at Rome, distrusted each other, and were equally afraid of attempting any bold stroke. It was to no purpose that they disgraced Cicero by means of the prosecution of Clodius which brought about his banishment, and removed Cato from Rome under pretence of an honourable embassy; they still could not summon up courage to attack each other, and so Rome remained without a master, a prize for the most audacious. Still, civil war would probably have broken out between the two, in B.C. 57, had it not been for the management of Julius, who held interviews with them, at Lucca and Ravenna in the winter, and persuaded them to agreement. At his suggestion they sought the consulate in B.C. 56 with the intention of obtaining important governments at its close. Julius stipulated that his own pro-consulship

should, at the same time, be prolonged for a second term of five years.

Crassus chose the East for his province, and quitted Rome towards the end of B.C. 55. Pompey chose the two Spains, but determined to administer them by deputy and to remain at the seat of government. In B.C. 53 Crassus fell at Carrhæ, and Pompey had now only to deprive Cæsar of power in order to be supreme. This he sought to do by means of a decree of the senate requiring Cæsar to resign his command and return to Rome without his army, B.C. 50. But Cæsar, who had effected his object of gaining the affections of a strong army by a long career of victory, thus challenged, took up the gauntlet that had been thrown down, "crossed the Rubicon," drove his rival out of Italy, defeated him at Pharsalia, and became master of the Roman Empire. The entire struggle, however, lasted five years. Cæsar would not follow Pompey across the Adriatic till he had mastered Spain. This he did in B.C. 49. He then struck his blow at Pharsalia (B.C. 48). Pompey's flight to Egypt drew him thither, and kept him there during most of B.C. 47. From Egypt he marched to Pontus and crushed Pharnaces at Zela. Then he proceeded to Africa, and destroyed the Pompeians there (B.C. 46). Finally, B.C. 45, he returned to Spain, and in the battle of Munda crushed the last remains of the party opposed to him, and assuming the title of dictator became practically Rome's king. This

position he might perhaps have occupied for as long a time as Augustus had he been content to conceal it under a decent veil, but he allowed his royalty to be spoken of, he let his flatterers offer him crowns, he flaunted his royal mistress, Cleopatra, in the eyes of the Romans, and he thus provoked his fate. The conspiracy which brought his life to an end, B.C. 44, within a year of Munda, was not the result of mere private jealousy but an outbreak of the antique Roman spirit. It was, however, an outbreak, not on the part of the Roman people, but of a mere knot of enthusiasts.

The murder of Julius, instead of restoring the republic, led to nothing but another contest between two rival candidates for supreme power. Mark Antony, consul at the time of Cæsar's death, imagined that he could without difficulty step into his place. But the combined boldness and prudence of Octavius, the great-nephew of Julius, baffled him, and he had to be content, at any rate for a time, with a division of the spoil. Defeated at Mutina, he was well satisfied to enter into an arrangement with his adversary, and to join with him in the "Second Triumvirate"—the first government which bore the name, a self-constituted Commission of Three—Antonius, Octavius, Lepidus, who were conjointly to rule the State.

A main feature of the arrangement of B.C. 43 was a

proscription. Each triumvir made out his own list of those whom he wished to be executed, and the lists included the names of 300 senators and 2,000 knights. Cicero was sacrificed to the hatred of M. Antony, provoked by the "Philippics." Tribunes, prætors, &c., shared his fate. Numbers were murdered merely because they were rich and their property was coveted by the triumvirs or their creatures.

The murderers of Julius, the "Liberators," as they called themselves, had obtained provinces in the panic that ensued upon his death, and were at the head of several legions in Macedonia and Syria. The remnant of the Pompeian party embraced their cause, Antony and Octavius marched against them in B.C. 42 and brought them to bay at Philippi in November of that year. The contest was unequal. The "Liberators" had with them no more than 100,000 trained troops, the triumvirs had 133,000. In two separate engagements on the same field, first Cassius, and then Brutus, suffered defeat and fell on their own swords. The republic fell with them, and never again lifted its head. The monarchical principle prevailed, and the only question was who should be the monarch.

It was impossible that the triumvirs should live peacefully together for any considerable time. Quarrel began in B.C. 40, when the party of Antony in Italy,

headed by his brother and his wife, broke out into rebellion against Octavius, but was crushed by the victory of Perusia. Antony arrived too late to assist the insurgents, and was forced by the clamours of his soldiery to come to terms with his rival. The "Peace of Brundusium" was concluded, and sealed by a marriage. Octavius gave his widowed sister, Octavia, in marriage to Antony, whose wife, Fulvia, had opportunely died.

Further quarrel was delayed by the attitude of Sextus Pompeius, who had gathered a fleet and seized Sicily. It was necessary to crush him, and with this object Lepidus and Octavius combined their forces. The war continued for three years, B.C. 38 to 36. In B.C. 36 Sextus was defeated at Naulochus, and fled to Asia. Soon afterwards Lepidus sought to elevate himself above Octavius; but his troops deserted him at the critical moment, and his rash ambition cost him his place in the triumvirate. It was in contempt, rather than through clemency, that Octavius spared his life.

Meanwhile Antony was engaged in re-establishing Roman influence in the East, disorganised by the recent civil war, and by the successful invasion of the Parthians, B.C. 40. In B.C. 36 he invaded Atropatene in conjunction with Artavasdes, the Armenian king.

But his arms made no impression, and he suffered greatly on his retreat. Attributing his losses to the remissness of his ally, he in B.C. 34 attacked Armenia, took Artavasdes prisoner, and carried him to Alexandria, where he gave himself up to his infatuated passion for Cleopatra, and became sunk in luxury and debauchery. Octavius, in B.C. 32, determined on a final rupture with his rival. He had consolidated his power in the West, had gained the affections of the Romans; he had made, by his generals, conquests in Dalmatia and Pannonia; he had annexed Mauretania. In B.C. 31, he crossed the Adriatic, and encountered the fleet and army of Antony at Actium. Persuaded by Cleopatra, Antony fled when the battle was scarcely begun, sacrificing his entire land force and the greater part of his navy. He reached Egypt in safety; but cooped up in a corner of the empire, it was impossible that he should recover himself. Octavius followed on his flying foe, and landing at Pelusium in B.C. 30, soon had both Cleopatra and Antony at his mercy. But he did not obtain possession of their persons. The Roman triumvir and the Egyptian queen, rather than fall into his hands, committed suicide. The kingdom of the Ptolemies fell; Egypt became a Roman province; and Octavius found himself sole master of the Roman world.

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EIGHTH PERIOD.

FROM THE ESTABLISHMENT OF THE ROMAN EMPIRE, B.C. 30, TO ITS DESTRUCTION IN THE WEST BY THE BARBARIANS, A.D. 476.

A.—HISTORY OF THE ROMAN EMPIRE.

a.—The Empire from the accession of Augustus to the death of Commodus, B.C. 30—A.D. 192.

The sole principate of Augustus lasted 44 years, from B.C. 30 to A.D. 14. Warned by the fate of Julius, he cloaked his sovereignty under constitutional forms, taking no new title, but merely uniting in his own person the various well-known offices of "Imperator" or Commander-in-Chief, which gave pro-consular power in the non-senatorial provinces; "Princeps Senatus," or President of the Senate; "Consul," "Censor," "Pontifex Maximus," and "Tribune." In his habits and mode of life he was unostentatious, and made him-

self generally accessible. Having secured [illegible] suffered control over the senate by the perpetual c[illegible] to the and the office of president (*Princeps*), he made n[illegible] encroachment on its privileges. The senate re[illegible]enia, its treasury (*Ærarium*) distinct from the Impera[illegible]ia, treasury (*fiscus*)—it still had its own provinces, to whi[illegible] it appointed "presidents" and "pro-consuls"—its consent was required to all new laws—it tried all persons accused of treason—and it was understood to have the sole right of conferring the *imperium*. Popular assemblies (*comitia*) still met, to elect magistrates from a list submitted by the Imperator, or to confirm laws (*leges Juliæ*) which he had proposed and carried in the Senate. Internal tranquillity was secured by the institution of a body-guard (*prætoriæ cohortes*) of 10,000 men, 3,000 of whom were always in Rome, and of an armed police (*cohortes urbanæ*) amounting to 6,000. The corn-largess kept the people well fed; the adornment of the capital gave abundant employment; the perpetual shows and games afforded perpetual amusement. Add to this that the nobles were cowed; that the wealthy were glad to enjoy their wealth in peace; and that all classes were weary of continual tumult and disturbance; and the quiet establishment of the imperial system seems to be explained sufficiently.

The wars which Augustus carried on, not in person but by his lieutenants, were of considerable importance. Between B.C. 27 and B.C. 19 Northern and North-Western

conquered by Agrippa and Carisius; in ... great expedition was made into Arabia Felix ...us Gallus; while between B.C. 16 and A.D. 9, under the conduct of Tiberius and Drusus, the ...peror's stepsons, the frontier was pushed from the ...lps and Balkans to the Danube, the entire tract south of the great river of Central Europe being reduced and added to the empire. This tract comprised the five provinces of Vindelicia, Rhætia, Noricum, Pannonia, and Mœsia. Augustus was not, however, content with these gains. His desire was to conquer all Central Europe, and to advance the frontier line to the Vistula and the Dniestr. A series of attacks was consequently made on the German nations. Vast armies penetrated deep into the interior of the continent; fleets coasted the northern shore and ascended the great rivers; battles were fought; forts were erected, and every effort made to reduce the whole region to subjection. But the efforts proved unsuccessful. The revolt of Arminius in A.D. 9, and the complete destruction of Varus and his legions in the same year, set Germany free. No further attempt at real conquest was made. The invasions of Tiberius in A.D. 10, and of Germanicus between A.D. 12 and 14, were mere displays, intended to re-establish the honour of Rome, and to deter the barbarians from carrying their arms across the Rhine into Roman territory.

Augustus seems to have assumed a right, if not to

appoint, at any rate to indicate, his succes... no son and but one daughter, Julia, he origi... to her first husband, Marcellus, and then to h... husband, Agrippa, to succeed him. At Ag... death, he transferred his hopes to his grandsons, C... and Lucius, Agrippa's children. But they, unhappi... perished just as they had reached to manhood. His third grandson proving an imbecile, he then felt forced back on Tiberius, his eldest stepson and Julia's third husband, whom he respected but disliked, and whom he compelled to adopt his nephew, Germanicus. To Germanicus he gave his own grand-daughter, Agrippina, in marriage.

Augustus died A.D. 14, and was succeeded by Tiberius, as he had intended. An attempt of the legions on the Rhine to proclaim Germanicus proved abortive, by the refusal of the nephew to oppose his ... Tiberius reigned 23 years—from A.D. 14 to 3... true character has been much disputed; b... does not seem to be any sufficient reason to ... the estimate made of it by Tacitus. He was la... and painstaking, a good general, an excellent a... trator; but he was cold, selfish, suspicious, pitile... in his later years, profligate. He disliked Germa... and intentionally subjected him to insult, but do... appear to have had any hand in his death. He cajoled and blinded for a time by his minister, Sejan... and under his influence consented to the execution

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great ...nt persons. Sejanus having proved a ...is Ga... nearly succeeded in murdering his master ...e unde...ng the crown, Tiberius became reckless, ...peror's...ed everyone in whom it was possible to see a ...ps an... and put everyone whom he suspected to death. of th... the same time he gave himself up to strange forms a... of profligacy. At Rome he was hated, but his memory was dear to the provincials, who profited by his careful administration. Tiberius designated no successor; but as his grandson, Tiberius Gemellus, was too young to reign, and his nephew, Claudius, was viewed as unfit, the succession fell to Caius, his great-nephew, in whom flowed the blood of Augustus, through his mother, Agrippina.

Caius, commonly called Caligula, reigned but four years, from March, A.D. 37, to January, A.D. 41. At first only a spendthrift, he rapidly became a cruel and fantastic tyrant. The possession of absolute power seems to have unhinged his mind. He lived in open incest with his sister, Drusilla, and after her death (A.D. 38) cast off all restraint, revelling in an endless succession of executions and murders. In B.C. 41 he was, in his turn, murdered by two of his guards, whom he had insulted beyond endurance.

Accident, rather than design or choice, raised to the throne Claudius, the dull, unready, half-imbecile brother of Germanicus. The Prætorians found him

skulking in a corner of the palace, and proc...ted by Vi... in default of any other readily accessible c...an Germ... the senate accepted him—and he became the p...plains... of supreme power. Claudius reigned nearly fo...efeat... years—from January, A.D. 41, to October, A.D. 54. ...er... was a weak but well-meaning prince, and has been somewhat unduly decried. Rome owed to him the "Aqua Claudia," and the "Aqua Aniena Nova," two of her best aqueducts, the Portus Romanus, or new harbour at Ostia, and the "emissarium Fucinum," or tunnel to carry off the superabundant waters of Lake Fucinus. Her empire was consolidated and increased under his sway. Mauretania, Lycia, Judæa and Thrace were turned from dependencies into provinces; and Britain was conquered as far as a line drawn from the Wash to the Dee.

Claudius was unhappy in his domestic relations. His two latest wives, Messalina and Agrippina, were almost equally infamous, and his execution of the one was followed after a short interval by his own murder by the other, who desired to secure the throne to her son by a former husband, L. Domitius Nero.

Nero, being of full age, and the adopted son of Claudius, naturally succeeded him, having the goodwill alike of the senate, of the prætorians and of the people. He was the pupil of Seneca, the comrade of Lucan, devoted to literature and the arts, a youth of high

heade
rebeut the intoxication of power ruined his
...as it had ruined that of Caius. After five
a blameless administration (A.D. 54 to 58), he
...e as cruel a tyrant as any of his predecessors.
... murdered his mother, Agrippina, his wife, Octavia,
Burrhus, Lucan and Seneca. He oppressed alike the provincials and the inhabitants of the capital. He persecuted, on frivolous pretexts, the Jews and Christians. It was believed that he set fire to Rome for the pleasure of seeing the flames raging. The honour of the empire was upheld on the frontiers by his generals; but at last he grew jealous of them. Corbulo was executed; Rufus and Proculus Scribonius were driven to commit suicide. On learning their fates the other legionary commanders rebelled. Deserted on all hands, Nero made a slave despatch him. The commanders, after a brief hesitation, agreed to support the claims of Galba; and in A.D. 68, the Julian and Claudian houses being entirely set aside, S. Sulpicius Galba was recognised as Roman emperor.

Galba reigned only a few months. Having made himself unpopular with the soldiers and with the Roman populace by his parsimony, and offended Otho by designating as his successor, a young virtuous Roman, Piso Licinianus, Otho headed a revolt against him, in which he fell, together with his *protégé*.

Otho then mounted the throne (January, A.D. 69), but

his right to it was disputed by Vitellius, commander of the legions in the Roman Germany, who marched upon Italy, met Otho in the plains of Lombardy, near Bedriacum, and completely defeated him, whereupon Otho put an end to his existence Vitellius became emperor in April, A.D. 69, but so disgusted the more respectable Romans with his vices that within a few months the standard of revolt was raised against him in the East by Mucianus, president of Syria, and Vespasian, governor of Judæa, two Romans of decent, if not of exalted character. Mucianus conceded the leading part in the revolt to his subordinate, and accepted the position of one of his generals. An obstinate contest followed. Vespasian seized Egypt, the granary of Rome, and sent his generals to fight for him in Italy. Antonius Primus defeated the Vitellians at Bedriacum, and marched on Rome, which he besieged for some months. After a long resistance the Capitol was taken and burnt, the Vitellians utterly routed, and Vitellius himself slain (December, A.D. 69). Vespasian then entered on the undisputed sovereignty.

Vespasian, during the ten years of his reign (A.D. 69–79) did much to recover the empire from the state of general depression into which it had fallen. By the instrumentality of his son Titus, he took Jerusalem, and brought the revolt of the Jews to an end in B.C. 70. About the same time, by his general, Cerialis, he suppressed the rebellion under Civilis and Sabinus

in Gaul and Gern ıany. In Britain he advanced the Roman frontier from the line of the Wash and Dee to that of the Solway Frith and the Tyne, by the generalship of Agricola (A.D. 79). He put the finances of the empire, which had fallen into complete disorder, on a sound footing. He re-established the discipline of the army. He constructed the greatest of all the Roman buildings—the Flavian amphitheatre or Coliseum. Though he banished the Stoics from Rome on account of their political views, he was a general patron of literature and art. He was the best ruler that Rome had known since Augustus, combining, as he did, firmness with leniency, economy with liberality, and a generally pacific policy with military vigour upon proper occasions.

Titus, already associated by his father in the government, ascended the throne without opposition at his death. He reigned, however, two years only (A.D. 79–81), being cut off by disease at the early age of forty. Though mild and popular, he seems to have been a weak prince, and it was perhaps well for his reputation that he died so young. The frontier of the empire was advanced in Britain during his reign from the line of the Solway Frith and Tyne to that of the Friths of Forth and Clyde.

Domitian succeeded his brother, Titus, in A.D. 81, and reigned fifteen years, till A.D. 96. He was of an

unhappy temper, and the events o
further to sour him. Agricola, his
to gain laurels in Britain, while his
military distinction were unavail
war, A.D. 84–87, ended unfortunatel
war (A.D. 86–90) was still more dish
finally purchased peace by cons
Dacians an annual tribute on co
invading Mœsia. His unhappine
vent in cruelties which have mad
and which naturally provoked h
was murdered by his freedmen on
96. The empire made no advanc

On the death of Domitian the
claim to appoint a new emperor, a
ing the matter left to them, proce
Their choice fell on M. Cocceius
and one of a mild disposition, ch
near relative. Nerva justified the
prudently and leniently, relieved
deranging the finances, and m
"delation." But he felt that he c
In his first year he took the prec
colleague and successor in the
Trajanus, whom, of all the Ro
best fitted for empire. In his s
he died, after holding the imper
than a year and four months.

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B.C.	PERSIA AND GREECE.		ROME.	
480	Battle of Platæa / ,, Mycalé	479		
	,, Eurymedon	466	Lex Publilia	472
	Artaxerxes I. (Longimanus)	465		
	Revolt of Helots at Sparta	464		
	War against Persians in Egypt	460	Demand for written Code of Laws	462
	Long walls of Athens built	457		
	Victory of Athenians over Bœotians at Œnophyta	456	The Decemviri publish the Laws	451 / 450
	Victory of Cimon (Athens at the height of her power)	450	Laws of Valerius and Horatius	448
	Battle of Coroneia	447	Appointment of Quæstors	447
	"Peace of Callias"	445		
	GREECE.			
	Athens under Pericles			

Carried away by Nebu-chadnezzar ... 586
End of the Kingdom of Judah.

B.C.	GREECE.		ROME.	
425	Athenians invade Bœotia, but are defeated at Delium	424		
	Darius II. (Nothus) King of Persia	425		
	Expedition of Brasidas into Macedon and Thrace. Cleon defeated by Brasidas at Amphipolis			
	Peace of Nicias	422		
	Spartan Confederacy restored	421		
	Athenians and Argives defeated at Mantinea	420		
	Sicilian Expedition	418		
	Complete destruction of Fleet and Army in Sicily	415		
	Sparta obtains Persian help	413		
	Athenian Victories off Coast of Asia Minor	412		
	The Four Hundred at Athens	412		
	Victories of Alcibiades	411		
	Battle of Cyzicus			
	Battle of Arginusæ	410	Hannibal (Elder) invades Sicily	409
	Artaxerxes II. (Mnemon)	405		
		406		
	Lysander, the Spartan Admiral defeats and captures Athenian Fleet at Ægos-potami			
	Surrender of Athens and End of War	405	Siege of Veii begins	
	Athens under the Thirty Tyrants	404	Wars of Carthage in Sicily	
	Retreat of the 10,000 under Xenophon	404	Dionysius I. King of Syracuse	
400		401		

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B.C.	GREECE.		ROME.	
400	....		....	
	Death of Socrates	399		
	War between Sparta and Persia..	399		
	Corinthian War against Sparta	395		
	Conon defeats Spartan Fleet at Cnidus. Recall of Agesilaus from Asia	394		
	Peace of Antalcidas	387	Battle of the Allia	390
	War between Sparta and Thebes	379	Laws of Licinius and Sextus	376–7
	Battle of Leuctra	371		
	Peloponnese invaded by Thebans	370		
	Second invasion of Peloponnese..			
	Battle of Mantinea	362	First Plebeian Consul	366
	General Peace among Greek States, with exception of Sparta	361		
	Artaxerxes III. (Ochus) King of Persia	359–338	Wars with Gauls, Hernici and Latins	362–348
	Social War of Athenian allies against Athens..	358		
	"Sacred War" against Phocis	357	Reduction of Etruria	358–351
	Philip of Macedon conquers Amphipolis, Pydna, Potidæa, &c.	355		
	Philip conquers Thessaly	355		
	The Thebans call in Philip against the Phocians	346	Wars with Volsci and Aurunci	350–345
	Thebans and Athenians defeated by Philip at Chæroneia	338	First Treaty of Commerce between Rome and Carthage	348
	Congress of Corinth accepts Philip as General of Greece..	337	First Samnite War	343–341
	Philip of Macedon murdered	336	Latin War	340–338
	Alexander crosses the Hellespont	334		
334	Battle of the Granicus	334		

B.C.	GREECE.		ROME.	
334	Battle of Issus	333		
	Battle of Arbela	331		
	Alexander in India..	327–324	Second Samnite War	326–304
	Death of Alexander	323		
	Wars of the Diadochi	323–301		
	Ptolemy I., King of Egypt	323		
	Lamian War	323–2		
	Death of Antipater	318		
	War between Cassander and Polysperchon	317		
	Antigonus master of Asia	316		
	League of the Satraps against Antigonus	315		
	Seleucus recovers Babylon—Era of Seleucidæ..	312	War of Carthage with Agathocles ..	311–304
	War between Ptolemy and Antigonus ..	310		
	Antigonus assumes title of King	306		
300	Antigonus and Demetrius defeated at Ipsus	301	Third Samnite War	298–290
	....		....	
	Demetrius Poliorcetes, King of Macedon	294		
	Demetrius driven from Macedonia ..	287	Hortensian Law	286
	Pyrrhus, King of Epir s, seizes throne of Macedonia	287		
	Lysimachus King of Macedon	286		
	Ptolemy II. (Philadelphus) King of Egypt	283		
	Lysimachus defeated at Corupedion ..	281	War with Tarentum	282
	Seleucus murdered by Ptolemy Ceraunus	280	Pyrrhus, King of Epirus, lands in Italy	280
	Antiochus I. becomes King of Syria ..	280	Battle of Heracleia	280
	Rise of Achæan League	280	Battle of Ausculum	279
275	Antigonus Gonatas King of Macedonia ..	278		

B.C.	GREECE.		ROME.	
275	Invasion of Gauls	275	Battle of Beneventum	275
	Pyrrhus again King of Macedon ..	273–1	Death of Pyrrhus	272
	Aratus delivers Sicyon	251	First Punic War begins..	264
	Ptolemy III. (Euergetes), King of Egypt ..	247	Arsaces I. founds Kingdom of Parthia ..	250
	Aratus frees Corinth	243	Victory at Ægatian Islands, and Peace ..	241
	Death of Antigonus. Accession of Demetrius II.	239	Tiridates (Arsaces II.) King of Parthia	248–214
	Cleomenes, King of Sparta, makes war on Achæan league	227	Attalus I. King of Pergamus	241–197
	Aratus calls in aid of Antigonus Doson against Cleomenes	224	Subjugation of Cisalpine Gaul ..	225–222
	Ptolemy IV. (Philopater)	222		
	Battle of Sellasia	221		
	Aratus defeated by Ætolians	220	Second Punic War begins	218
	Social War begins	220	Hannibal in Italy	218
	End of Social War	217	Battles of Ticinus and Trebia	218
	Philip V. of Macedon, makes alliance with Hannibal	216	Battle of Lake Trasimene	217
			Battle of Cannæ	216
			First Macedonian War begins	215
	Treaty between Rome and Ætolians against Philip	211	Arsaces III., King of Parthia	214–196
			Capua surrendered to Romans	211
			Battle of Metaurus	207
	Ptolemy V. (Epiphanes) King of Egypt.. ..	205	Scipio lands in Africa	204
			Battle of Zama	202
	War between Philip and Rome	200	Second Macedonian War	200
200	....		....	
	Battle of Cynoscephalæ	197	Battle of Cynoscephalæ	197
187	Settlement of Greece by Flaminius	194	War with Antiochus	192–189

B.C.	GREECE.		ROME.	
187	Death of Antiochus the Great	187		
	Ptolemy VI. (Philometor)	181		
	Death of Philip V. and accession of Perseus ..	179	Mithridates I. King of Parthia	174
	War between Perseus and Rome	171	Third Macedonian War	171
	Revolt of Jews against Antiochus Epiphanes ..	168		
	Defeat of Perseus by Æmilius Paulus at Pydna	168		
	Division of Macedonia into four Provinces ..	168		
	Abolition of Ætolian League	168	Battle of Pydna	168
	Battle of Eleasa	160		
	War between Rome and Achæan League ..	147		
	Corinth destroyed by Mummius	146	Third Punic War begins	149
	Ptolemy VIII. (Physcon) King of Egypt ..	146		
	Greece, conquered by Mummius, becomes a Roman Province	146	Capture and destruction of Carthage	146
	PARTHIA, ARMENIA, ETC.		**ROME FROM THIRD PUNIC WAR.**	
	Phraates II. succeeds Mithridates	136	Numantine War begins	143
	Death of Attalus III., King of Pergamus ..	133	Destruction of Numantia	133
	Phraates II. defeats Antiochus Sidetes ..	129	First Servile War	135–132
	Artabanus, King of Parthia	127	Agrarian Proposals of Tib. Gracchus	133
	Mithridates II. King of Parthia	124	End of Numantine War	133
	War with Tigranes King of Armenia ..	122	Caius Gracchus elected Tribune	123
	Mithridates V. the Great, King of Pontus ..	120	Caius Gracchus murdered	121
120			Colonies in Southern Gaul	120

B.C.	PARTHIA, ARMENIA, ETC.		ROME.	
120			War against Cimbri and Teutones begins	113
			War with Jugurtha begins	101
			Marius receives command of Jugurthine War	107
			Jugurtha brought to Rome	105
			Marius, Consul	104–100
			Wins battle of Aquæ Sextiæ	102
			and of Vercellæ	101
			Marius sixth time Consul	100
			Saturninus put to death	100
100	....		....	
			Marius withdraws to Asia	99
	Tigranes I. King of Armenia	96	Drusus assassinated	91
			Social War begins	90
			Citizenship conferred on Latins, &c.	88
			End of Social War. Sulla, Consul	88
			First Mithridatic War	88–84
			Civil War between Sulla and Marius	88
	Massacre of Romans in Asia by Mithridates V.	88	Sulla takes Rome and departs for the Mithridatic War	88
			Marius enters Rome	87
			Marius seventh time Consul	86
	Sulla defeats Mithridates V. at Chæronea	86	Death of Marius	86
			Peace made with Mithridates	84
			Sulla returns to Italy	83
			Marius defeated by Sulla	82
			Sulla, Dictator. Proscription	82
80			Second Mithridatic War	83–81

B.C.	PARTHIA, ARMENIA, ETC.		ROME.	
80			War with Sertorius	80–72
	Nicomedes III., King of Bithynia, leaves his dominions to Rome	74	Sulla abdicates	79
			Death of Sulla	78
			Third Mithridatic War begins	78
			War of the Gladiators	74
	Phraates III. becomes King of Parthia	69	Consulship of Pompey and Crassus	73–71
			Tigranes defeated by Lucullus at Tigranocerta	70
			War against the Pirates. Pompey receives the command (Gabinian Law)	69
			Pompey receives command against Mithridates (Manilian Law)	67
	Pompey makes alliance with Phraates	66	Pompey settles the East	66
	Mithridates V. dies in the Chersonese	65	Catiline Conspiracy	64–3
	Syria made a Roman Province	65	Return of Pompey to Rome, and triumph	63
	Pharnaces II. King of Pontus	63	Cæsar goes as Proprætor to Spain	61
	Mithridates III. King of Parthia	60	First Triumvirate (Pompey, Cæsar and Crassus)	61
	War with Artavasdes of Armenia	55	Cæsar Consul	60
	Orodes, King of Parthia	55	Cæsar	59
	Pacorus invades Asia	52–51	Battle of Carrhæ. Death of Crassus	58–51
			Cæsar crosses the Rubicon	53
			Pompey defeated at Pharsalia	49
			Cæsar in Egypt	48
			Battle of Zela	47
			Battle of Thapsus	47
			Battle of Munda	46
			Murder of Cæsar	45
			Antony defeated at Mutina	44
42			Second Triumvirate (Antony, Octavius, Lepidus)	43
				43

B.C.	PARTHIA, ARMENIA, ETC.		ROME.	
42			Battle of Philippi. Death of Brutus and Cassius	42
	Pacorus, son of Orodes, conquers Asia ..	40	Battle of Perusia	41
	Antiochus takes Jerusalem	40	Peace of Brundisium	40
	Pacorus defeated	38	Antony goes to the East	39
	Phraates IV., King of Parthia	38	War against Sextus Pompeius	38–36
	Attacked by Antony	36	Antony in the East defeats Artavasdes, King of Armenia	34
	Herod the Great made King of Judæa ..	37	Antony in Egypt. Battle of Actium	31
			Octavianus sole Ruler. Temple of Janus closed	29
	PARTHIA AND PERSIA.		ROMAN EMPERORS TO FALL OF WESTERN EMPIRE.	B.C. A.D.
	Death of Phraates IV.	B.C. 2	The Julian Emperors	31 – 68
			Cæsar Octavianus Augustus	31 – 14
A.D. 1	....		....	
	Augustus makes Vonones King of Parthia ..	4	Birth of Christ (four years before)	1
	Artabanus made King of Parthia by Germanicus	16	Varus defeated by Arminius	9
			Tiberius (step-son)	14
			Expedition of Germanicus	14–16
			Cappadocia made a Roman Province	17
			Caius (Caligula) son of Germanicus	37
	Fourth Parthian Dynasty. Vonones II. ..	51	Claudius (son of Drusus)	41
	Vologeses I.	51	Commencement of Conquest of Britain ..	43
	Loses Armenia. Victories of Corbulo	58–65	Nero	54
65			First persecution of Christians	64

A.D.	PARTHIA AND PERSIA.		ROMAN EMPIRE.	
65			Galba, Otho, Vitellius	68–69
			The Flavian Emperors	69–96
			Vespasian	69
			War with Civilis	69
			Capture of Jerusalem by Titus	69–79
			Titus (son)	70
	Pacorus, King of Parthia	78	Eruption of Vesuvius	79
			Domitian (brother)	79
			Campaigns of Agricola in Britain ..	81
			Dacian War	81–84
			Persecution of Christians	86–90
			Nerva and his adopted family	93
			Nerva	96–192
			Trajan	96
100	....		....	98
	Chosroës King of Parthia	108	Dacia made a Province	107
	Loss of Armenia, Mesopotamia and Assyria	115	Victories over Parthians	114–116
	Hadrian abandons conquests of Trajan ..	117	Chosroës driven from Armenia	115
	Vologeses II. King of Parthia ..		Hadrian	117
	Vologeses III.	130	Antoninus Pius (T. Aurelius)	138
	Vologeses III. attacks Armenia	149	Marcus Aurelius	161
	Avidius Cassius and Statius defeat Vologeses	162	War against the Parthians	162–165
		165	War with the Marcomanni and Quadi ..	166–180
			Avidius Cassius defeated in Syria ..	175
			Commodus (son)	180
193	Vologeses IV.	191	Emperors appointed by soldiers	193–284
			Pertinax	193

A.D.	PARTHIA AND PERSIA.	ROMAN EMPIRE.
193		Didius Julianus 193
		Septimus Severus 193
200	Capture of Babylon, and loss of Adiabene .. 197	Campaign in Mesopotamia 195
	Vologeses V. 209	Expedition against Scots 208
	Massacre of Parthians at Ctesiphon by Caracallus 216	Caracallus (son) 211
	Parthians defeat Macrinus at Nisibus .. 217	Macrinus 217
	New Persian Empire of the Sassanidæ, founded by Artaxerxes I... 226	Purchases peace from Parthians.. 217
		Elagabalus 218
		Alexander Severus 222
		Maximius 235
	Sapor I. King of Persia 240	Gordian I. & II. 237
	Wars with Rome 241–244	Gordian III. 238
		Philip 244
		Decius 249
		Persecution of Christians 250
		Invasion of Goths 250
		Gallus 251
		Æmilianus 253
		Valerianus 253
	Sapor again invades Roman dominions, and defeats and takes Valerian prisoner .. 258	Wars with Franks, Germans and Goths, and with Persia 253
	Odenathus attacks Sapor 263	Gallienus 260
		Thirty Tyrants 260–274
	Mani appears in Persia 268	Odenathus and Zenobia 260
		Claudius II. 268
270		Defeats Germans and Goths 269

A.D.	PERSIA.	ROMAN EMPIRE.
270	Hormisdas I. 271	Aurelian 270
	Manichæism spreads in the East 272	Cedes Dacia to the Goths, and defeats Zenobia 270
	Varahran I. 272	Tacitus 275
	Varahran II.	Probus 276
	Revolt of Tiridates of Armenia, [illegible] Rome 286–293	Carus 282
	Varahran III. 292	Invades Persia, and captures Ctesiphon .. 283
	Narses I. 293	Diocletian 284
	Narses defeated by Galerius.. 297	Associates Maximian 285
	Persia cedes 5 provinces beyond Tigris to Rome 297	Appoints Constantius Chlorus and Galerius, Cæsars 293
300	Abdication of Narses. Accession of Hormisdas II. 301	General persecution of Christians 303
		Diocletian abdicates 305
		Galerius and Constantius, Emperors 305
		Severus and Maximin, Cæsars 305
		Constantine (son of Constantius) proclaimed Emperor in Britain 306
		Maxentius proclaimed Emperor at Rome .. 306
	Sapor II. 309	Severus put to death at Ravenna 307
	Wars in Arabia 325–337	Constantine, Maximian, Maxentius, in the West. } Galerius, Maximin, Licinius, Augusti in East } 307
		Constantine puts to death Maximian 310
		Maxentius defeated by Constantine 312
324		War between Constantine and Licinius 314–324

A.D.	PARTHIA AND PERSIA.	ROMAN EMPIRE.

A.D.	PERSIA.		ROMAN EMPIRE.	
324			Constantine Sole Emperor	323
			Council of Nice	325
			Constantine divides the Empire and makes Byzantium his Capital	330
	War of Sapor II. with Constantius	337–350	Constantine II. Emperor of West	337–340
			Constantius Emperor of East	337–361
			Constans Emperor in Illyricum and Africa	337–350
			Constantius Sole Emperor	353
	Expedition of Julian against Sapor II.	363	Julian	361
			Jovian	363
	Jovian cedes Armenia and five provinces	363	Valentinian I.	364–375
	War in Iberia	371–375	Valens Emperor of East	364–378
	Death of Sapor II. Accession of Artaxerxes III.	379	Gratian Emperor of West	367–383
	Sapor III.	383	Valentinian II.	375–392
	Armenia conquered and divided	383	Valens defeated by Goths at Adrianople	375
	Varahran IV.	388	Theodosius Co-Regent with Gratian	379
	Isdigerd I.	399	Sole Emperor	394
			Arcadius Emperor of East	395
400			Honorius Emperor of West	395
	Varahran V.	420	The Goths under Alaric sack Rome	410
	War with Rome	420–2	Kingdom of Vandals in Africa	429
	Ephthalites attack Persia	423	Valentinian III.	425
	Isdigerd II.	440	Attila defeated at Châlons	451
	Wars with the Ephthalites	443–457	Attila in Italy	452
455			Maximus, Emperor	455

A.D.	PERSIA.		ROMAN EMPIRE.	
455	Civil War between Hormisdas and Perozes	457–9	Rome plundered by Vandals	455
	Perozes sole King	459	Avitus Emperor	455
	Unsuccessful war and disgraceful peace with Ephthalites	464–5	Majorian Emperor	457
			Severus Emperor	461
			Ricimer the Goth	465–467
			Anthemius	467
			Olybrius	472
	Perozes killed in war with Ephthalites. Balas succeeds	483	Glycerius	473
	Kobad (first reign)	487–498	Julius Nepos.	473
	Mazdakism in Persia	490	Romulus Augustulus	476
	Kobad deposed	493	Odoacer, King of Heruli, Ruler of Italy	476
500	Zamasp (brother)	498–501	*End of the Western Empire.*	
	Kobad restored with help of Ephthalites	501		
	Second reign of Kobad	501–531		
	First war with Rome (Eastern Empire)	501–505		
	War with Ephthalites. Peace with Rome	505–525		
	Second war (against Belisarius)	524–531		
	Kobad defeated by Belisarius at Daras	528		
	Chosroës I.	531		
	Makes Peace with Justinian	533		
	War with Justinian. Capture of Antioch	540		
	Invasion of Lazica	541		
545	Truce with Rome	545		

A.D.	PERSIA.	
545	Chosroës allies himself with Turks against Ephthalites	557
	Expedition of Chosroës to Arabia	562
	Turks invade Persia	567
	Third Roman War begins	573
	Death of Chosroës I.	579
	Hormisdas IV.	579–589
	Invasion of Persia by Eastern Emperor, Maurice	579
	Invasion of Turks, Khazars, and Arabs	589
	Revolt of Bahram	589
	Chosroës II. (son)	589
	Driven from Throne by Bahram	589
	Bahram King	589–591
	Second reign of Chosroës II.	591–628
600	....	
	Conquests of Chosroës. Persia restored to ancient limits	620
	Heraclius, Emperor of East, defeats Shahr-Barz	622
	Defeat of Shahr-Barz at Sarus	625
	Heraclius defeats the Persians at Nineveh	627
	Siroës (Kobad II.)	628–9
	Shahr-Barz usurps the throne, but is killed	629
	Period of Anarchy	629–32
	Isdigerd III. (grandson of Chosroës II.), last Sassanid King	632
	Wars with the Caliphs Abu-Bekr and Omar	632
	Battle of Cadesia	636
	Capture of Ctesiphon	637
	Battle of Nehavend	641
651	Fall of the Sassanid Empire	651
	Persia absorbed into the Empire of the Mohammedans.	

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Y

him, and gave the crown to Olybrius, son-in-law of Valentinian III. Olybrius seems to have died a natural death three months later, Ricimer himself having previously expired, and left the command of his troops to his nephew, Gundobald, a Burgundian. Gundobald invested with the purple an obscure soldier called Glycerius; but Leo, the Eastern emperor, once more interposed and assigned the throne to Julius Nepos, Prince of Dalmatia. Nepos overcame Glycerius, but he had not reigned a year when the mercenaries broke out into revolt, and gave the crown to Romulus Augustus, the son of the patrician, Orestes, afterwards called in derision Augustulus. Romulus Augustus, the last Western emperor, reigned, like his predecessor, less than a year. The mercenaries, who had made him sovereign, unmade him, A.D. 476, and gave the crown to their German chief, Odoacer, who took the title of "King of Italy."

B.—Parallel History of Parthia.

a.—The Early Beginnings.

The Parthian kingdom was, as already noticed,

established about B.C. 250 by the revolt of a certain Arsaces, a leader of Scythian Dahæ, from Antiochus Theus. Arsaces I. reigned two years only, B.C. 250–248. He occupied himself chiefly in consolidating his dominion in Parthia Proper, where it was not universally acknowledged. He left his crown to his brother, Tiridates, who took the throne name of Arsaces II.

FIRST DYNASTY OF PARTHIAN KINGS, B.C. 250–89.

Abt. B.C. Abt. B.C.	Name of King.	Length of Reign.
250—248	1. Arsaces I.	2 years.
248—214	2. Tiridates	34 years.
214—196	3. Arsaces III.	18 years.
196—181	4. Priapatius	15 years.
181—174	5. Phraates I.	7 years.
174—136	6. Mithridates I.	38 years.
136—127	7. Phraates II.	9 years.
127—124	8. Artabanus I.	3 years.
124— 89	9. Mithridates II.	35 years.

Omar and Othman followed the example set by the first Caliph; and the Arab bands, rendered irresistible by their fanaticism, everywhere carried all before them. In Persia Isdigerd made a stout resistance, but it was in vain. The outworks of his kingdom were carried by the Arab generals in the three years from A.D. 633 to 635. In A.D. 636, the great battle of Cadesia (Kadisiyeh) was fought and won by Sa'ad, who at the head of 30,000 men completely defeated the Persians, who numbered 120,000. In A.D. 637 Isdigerd evacuated Ctesiphon and retired to the mountains, where he collected a fresh army and stood at bay near Holwan. But the Arabs followed on his retreating footsteps and inflicted on him two more great defeats, one at Jalula in A.D. 638, and the other at Nehawend in A.D. 641. After this third defeat Isdigerd became a fugitive and a wanderer in the remote provinces of the East, while he vainly solicited assistance from the Khan of the Turks and the Emperor of China. At last, in A.D. 651, he was murdered by one of his own attendants near Merv, and the Kingdom of the Sassanidæ was finally and completely absorbed into the Empire of the Mohammedans.

territory. Mithridates appears to have died a. 89, after a reign of at least 35 years.

b.—The Middle Period, B.C. 89 *to* A.D. 51.

A blank here occurs in Parthian history, which it is impossible to fill up. The next known monarch to Mithridates II. was Sanatrœces, who ascended the throne in B.C. 76, and appears to have been the founder of a dynasty.

SECOND PARTHIAN DYNASTY, B.C. 76 TO A.D. 16.

B.C. B.C.	Name of King.	Length of Reign.
76—69	1. Sanatrœces	7 years.
69—60	2. Phraates III.	9 years.
60—55	3. Mithridates III.	5 years.
55—38	4. Orodes I.	17 years.
38— 2	5. Phraates IV.	36 years.
2—A.D. 3	6. Phraataces	5 years.
A.D. 4—16	7. Vonones	12 years.

...rœces is said to have been 80 years old when ...me king, and to have reigned seven years. He ...ucceeded by his son, Phraates III., the monarch ...h whom Pompey made alliance in B.C. 66. This ...lliance decided the Mithridatic War in Rome's favour, but did not evoke any gratitude. Pompey deprived Phraates of the province of Gordyene, which he had taken from Tigranes, and attached it once more to Armenia. Soon after this Phraates died, poisoned, it is said, by his two sons, Mithridates and Orodes.

Mithridates, the elder of the two sons, succeeded, but reigned only a few years. He warred unsuccessfully with Artavasdes I., of Armenia, and was deposed by the Parthian nobles, who placed his brother Orodes upon the throne (about B.C. 55). It was Orodes who was attacked by Crassus in B.C. 54, with the disastrous result already narrated. The defeat of Carrhæ, B.C. 53, was followed by the two invasions of Pacorus in B.C. 52 and 51, which spread devastation over Syria and Cilicia and alarmed Antioch for her safety. The danger was for the time escaped; but eleven years later, B.C. 40, Pacorus, son of Orodes, made a third attack, and assisted by the Roman refugee, Labienus, swept all before him, took Antioch, Apameia, Sidon, Ptolemaïs and Jerusalem, became master of Syria, Phœnicia and Palestine, invaded Asia Minor, occupied the whole southern coast as far as Caria, and even sent

plundering bands into Ionia and the regio... Ephesus. Labienus was however defeated an... by the Romans in B.C. 39, and a similar fate ... Pacorus in the next year. The Parthians were dri... back across the Euphrates, never to return. Orod... died, it is said of grief when he heard what had befallen his son, and the crown fell to Phraates IV., B.C. 38.

Phraates reigned from B.C. 38 to B.C. 2, thirty-six years. He was attacked by Antony in B.C. 36, but repulsed him. A pretender, Tiridates, disputed the crown with him for some years, and was encouraged by Augustus. Phraates was finally murdered by a slave-concubine, Thermusa, who placed their son, Phraataces, upon the throne. The Parthians, however, declined to confirm her act, and put Phraataces to death within a few months, making a certain Orodes king, whose relationship to earlier monarchs is uncertain. But Orodes displeased them after a short time, and they sent to Rome for a monarch. Augustus sent them Vonones, the eldest son of Phraates IV., who had been kept at his court for many years as a hostage. Vonones appears to have reigned quietly from A.D. 4 to 16, when he was expelled and fled into Armenia. Germanicus then made Artabanus king, selecting him from among the remoter members of the royal house.

THIRD PARTHIAN DYNASTY, A.D. 16 TO 51.

A.D. A.D.	Name of King.	Length of Reign.
16 — 42	1. Artabanus III.	26 years.
42 — 46	2. Vardanes	4 years.
46 — 51	3. Gotarzes	7 years.

Artabanus III. had a troubled reign. The Babylonian Jews and several of the tributary monarchs revolted against him, while at the same time he was harassed by contests with pretenders whom Tiberius supported. At his death, his two sons, Gotarzes and Vardanes, contended for the throne. The younger, Vardanes, was successful, and reigned four years, when his subjects slew him and made Gotarzes king. Gotarzes had a contest with a pretender called Meherdates, a son of Vonones, who was supported by the Romans, but failed. Gotarzes, shortly after, A.D. 51, died, apparently by a natural death.

c.—The Closing Period, A.D. 51 *to* A.D. 226.

A second Vonones was placed upon the throne on

the death of Gotarzes. He was a member of the royal family, but only distantly related to preceding kings. His descendants are thought to have held the crown to the close of the empire; but this is gathered rather from the continued use of the same names than from any direct historical evidence.

FOURTH PARTHIAN DYNASTY, A.D. 51 TO 226.

Abt. A.D.	Name of King.	Length of Reign.
51—51	1. Vonones II.	A few months.
51—78	2. Vologeses I.	27 years.
78—108	3. Pacorus	30 (?) years.
108—130	4. Chosroës	22 (?) years.
130—149	5. Vologeses II.	19 years.
149—191	6. Vologeses III.	42 years.
191—209	7. Vologeses IV.	18 years.
209—215	8. Vologeses V.	6 years.
215—226	9. Artabanus III.	11 years.

Vonones II. reigned only a few months. He was

succeeded by his son, Vologeses I., who held
for 27 years. He lost Armenia to Rome, th
skill of Nero's general, Corbulo (A.D. 56–
acquiesced in the deprivation. Pacorus, his e
succeeded him, and reigned about 30 years.
is known of him except that he beautified Ct
He was followed, about A.D. 108, by his
Chosroës, who began his reign by breaking t
peace with Rome and re-asserting Parthia's c
exercise authority over Armenia. The expedi
Trajan followed (A.D. 115–116). Parthia not o
Armenia, but saw her chief cities sacked, and h
old provinces of Mesopotamia and Assyria occ
Hadrian, however, abandoned all that Trajan had
and peace with Rome continued unbroken durin
remainder of the reign of Chosroës, and during t
his successor, Vologeses II., who was suffic
occupied by a struggle with the aggressive A
Vologeses III., who followed Vologeses II., pro
another war with Rome, by an attack upon Arm
At first he was successful, and occupied the disp
country; but the generals of Verus, Statius Priscus
Avidius Cassius, soon checked his advance. Sta
recovered Armenia. Avidius Cassius invaded Par
itself, overran Mesopotamia and Assyria, t
Seleucia, Ctesiphon and Babylon, burnt the palac
the Parthian kings, and forced Vologeses to an ig
minious peace, A.D. 165. Mesopotamia was ceded,
Armenia resumed her position of dependence on Ro

After this Vologeses III. reigned in peace till hi
in A.D. 191. His son, Vologeses IV. succeeded. H
embraced the cause of Pescennius Niger, A.D. 193,
was attacked by Severus in A.D. 197, and suffered seve
losses. Seleucia, Ctesiphon and Babylon were once
more taken and plundered. Another province, Adiabene,
had to be ceded as the price of peace. In A.D. 198 a
pretender, Pacorus, rose and claimed the crown. He,
however, was soon overcome, and Vologeses seems to
have reigned in peace over his diminished kingdom
from A.D. 198 to 209. On his death, contention broke
out between his two sons, Vologeses and Artabanus, of
whom the former ascended the throne and reigned as
Vologeses V. Caracallus negotiated with him early in
A.D. 215, demanding the surrender of two r
Tiridates and Antiochus. The Parthian
weakly yielded, but seems by the act to have
affections of his subjects, since in the autumn
Artabanus appears as king and continues th
tions with the Roman emperor. Having
Caracallus as a husband for his daughter, he
to receive him in his camp outside Ctesiphon
treacherous Roman fell upon the unsuspecting
slaughtered thousands, plundered far and
returned triumphant to his own territory
...banus the next spring advanced again
... when Caracallus had been already m
...us. A great battle was fought in th
...17, near Nisibis, between the Roma

Parthians, in which the latter were completely victorious. Macrinus bought a peace by the payment of a large sum of money and the withdrawal of the Roman forces within the line of the Euphrates. Within a few years, however, of this great triumph, revolt broke out in the south. Persia reasserted her independence under Artaxerxes, the son of Babek, and after a short struggle, not only shook off the Parthian yoke, but made herself mistress of the entire empire, A.D. 226.

.—PARALLEL HISTORY OF LATER PERSIA.

story of Later Persia is only connected with Western Roman Empire from the foundation gdom by Artaxerxes, A.D. 226, to the reign of IV. (A.D. 388–399), who was contemporary reat Theodosius, but we propose, neverthe- t a brief sketch of the entire kingdom, which m centuries and a half longer, to the time of Amedan conquest. The list of kings forms a sty; but the relationship of the monarchs her, is sometimes uncertain.

DYNASTY OF THE SASSANIDÆ (A.D. 226–651).

A.D. A.D.	Name of King.	Length of Reign.
226—240	1. Artaxerxes I.	14 years.
240—271	2. Sapor I.	31 years.
271—272	3. Hormisdas I.	1 year.
272—275	4. Varahran I.	3 years.
275—292	5. Varahran II.	17 years.
292—293	6. Varahran III.	4 months.
293—301	7. Narses	8 years.
301—309	8. Hormisdas II.	8 years.
309—379	9. Sapor II.	70 years.
379—383	10. Artaxerxes II.	4 years.
383—388	11. Sapor III.	5 years.
388—399	12. Varahran IV.	11 years.
399—420	13. Isdigerd I.	21 years.
420—440	14. Varahran V.	20 years.
440—457	15. Isdigerd II.	17 years.
457—459	16. Hormisdas III.	2 years.
459—483	17. Perozes	24 years.
483—487	18. Balas	4 years.
487—498	19. Kobad I.	12 years.

DYNASTY OF THE SASSANIDÆ *(continued).*

A.D. A.D.	Name of King.	Length of Reign.
498—501	20. Zamasp	3 years.
501—531	Kobad I. (again)	30 years.
531—579	21. Chosroës I.	48 years.
579—589	22. Hormisdas IV.	10 years.
589—590	23. Bahram	1 year.
590—628	24. Chosroës II.	38 years.
628–629	25. Kobad II.	1 year.
629—629	26. Artaxerxes III.	A few months.
629—630	27. Shahr-barz	1 year.
630—632	(Anarchy)	2 years.
632—651	28. Isdigerd III.	9 years.

Artaxerxes I., the leader of the revolt against Artabanus, was probably the tributary monarch of Persia under the Parthians. The Arians under Parthian rule had, no doubt, been always discontented, and in the decline of Parthian power indicated by the successes of Trajan, Avidius Cassius and Sept. Severus, they had begun to entertain hopes of regaining the position priority which they had lost nearly five centuries

earlier. Artaxerxes was the natural leader of an Arian insurrection and had perhaps committed himself too far to recede before Artabanus gained his signal victory over Macrinus. At any rate the insurrection must have broken out almost immediately after that great success, for by the year A.D. 226 not only had Persia shaken off the Parthian yoke, but the provinces had everywhere submitted and acknowledged Artaxerxes as king.

War with Rome followed. Artaxerxes claimed the ancient dominions of the Persian kings and summoned the Romans to retire from Asia. Al. Severus refused, and Artaxerxes invaded his territories, A.D. 230. Roman Mesopotamia was occupied, but in the next year Severus collected a large army, with which in A.D. 232 he crossed the Euphrates and advanced towards the interior of Persia. Artaxerxes defeated one division of his army and forced him to retreat, after which peace was made on the basis of the *status quo*. Artaxerxes after this conquered Armenia and made it a Persian province. His later years were occupied by religious reforms, and an attempt to establish uniformity of faith and worship.

Sapor I., the son of Artaxerxes, succeeded him in A.D. 240, and reigned thirty-one years, dying in A.D. 271. After putting down a revolt in Armenia, he renewed the Roman war. At first he was very successful, taking

Nisibis, Carrhæ, Edessa, and even Antioch. But in A.D. 242, Timasitheus, the general of the young Gordian, defeated him, retook the captured towns, crossed the Persian frontier, and even threatened Ctesiphon. But the murder of Gordian by Philip brought the invasion to an end, and a peace was hastily patched up, which endured sixteen years. In A.D. 258 Sapor invaded the Roman dominions for the second time, defeated Valerian and took him prisoner, overran Syria, Cilicia and Cappadocia, took Antioch, Tarsus and Cæsarea Mazaca, and carried back with him into Persia a host of captives and an immensity of booty. Apparently he did not aim at conquest, but merely strove to secure his own frontier by striking terror into the enemy beyond it.

A war followed between Sapor and Odenathus, the husband of Zenobia. Odenathus, who gave himself the airs of an independent king, attacked Sapor in A.D. 263, defeated him near Nisibis and advanced on Ctesiphon, but suffered defeat in turn, and had to retire into his own territory.

In his later years Sapor seems to have employed himself chiefly in the construction of great works. He built a new capital which he called after himself (Shapur), near Cazeroon, in the vicinity of the Persian Gulf. He constructed a vast dyke at Shuster, and diverted half of the Karun into a new channel. He also carved numerous rock-sculptures, and set up a number

of inscriptions, which exist to the present day. The religious fanatic, Mani, began his teaching in Sapor's reign ; but it did not at first attract much attention.

On the death of Sapor, his son, Hormisdas I., mounted the throne, but reigned little more than a year, A.D. 271–272. He protected Mani, and allowed him to preach his doctrines freely, with the result that Manichæism became rampant in the East, and passing from Persia into the Roman Empire caused great troubles in the Christian Church for several centuries. At the death of Hormisdas, the throne fell to his son, Varahran I. from whom it passed to a second Varahran in A.D. 275. The first Varahran offended Rome by assisting Zenobia ; the second was attacked by Carus in A.D. 283, and suffered great losses. Seleucia and Ctesiphon were taken, and Persepolis would probably have fallen, had not the death of Carus made retreat necessary. Varahran II. made peace with Numerian by the cession of Mesopotamia. Three years later fresh troubles broke out. Diocletian brought over Armenia to his interests, placed a new king, Tiridates, upon the throne, and encouraged him to make raids into Persia. This state of things continued from A.D. 286 to 293 under Varahran II. and his successor, Varahran III., who reigned only four months. It was changed, but not improved, under Narses, who succeeded Varahran III. in A.D. 293, and endeavoured to reduce Armenia to subjection. Successful at first,

he was ultimately defeated by Galerius in a great battle, A.D. 297, and compelled to cede, not only Armenia, but a great part of Atropatene, and also five provinces adjoining Armenia on the south, Arzanene, Zabdicene, Cordyene, Rehimene and Moxoëne. Narses abdicated shortly after this reverse, A.D. 301, and left his crown to his son, Hormisdas II.

Hormisdas II. had a short and peaceful reign (A.D. 301–309). He restored the ruined towns and villages throughout his empire, established a new Court of Justice for the trial of rich oppressors, and entered into friendly relations with the Indo-Scythic king of Cabul, whose daughter he married.

At the death of Hormisdas II. the nobles would not allow his son, another Hormisdas, to ascend the throne, but gave the royal dignity to a posthumous son of Narses, who received the name of Sapor, and is known in history as Sapor II. Sapor II., king from the moment of his birth, had the exceptionally long reign of 70 years, from A.D. 309 to 379. He was one of the most distinguished of the later Persian princes. During his minority, the Arab tribes who bordered Babylonia on the west, made constant incursions into the cultivated region and ravaged it at their pleasure. Sapor's first act after he attained his majority was to chastise these aggressors. For twelve years (A.D. 325–337) he carried fire and sword through South-Eastern

Arabia, gaining numerous victories over the tribes, and carrying off thousands of captives. He then waged three wars with Rome. In the first, which lasted from A.D. 337 to 350, he had for his adversary, Constantius, the son of Constantine, a prince of no military talent, but who wielded the vast resources of the whole Roman empire. Sapor in this war detached Armenia from Rome and frequently invaded Mesopotamia, but could not succeed in reducing the Roman fortresses. The second war broke out in A.D. 359. Rome had reconquered Armenia during the interval, and Sapor was bent on recovering it or, at any rate, on avenging himself. He invaded Mesopotamia, besieged and took Amida, Singara and Bezabda, and for two years ravaged the country far and wide. Constantius, who was growing old, with difficulty kept him in check, and it was the generally threatening aspect of affairs in the East that provoked Julian, in A.D. 363, to make his expedition. The failure of that expedition has been already noticed. Jovian was driven to make peace by the cession of Armenia and of the five provinces which had been taken from Persia by Galerius. The scene of the third Roman war of Sapor was Iberia, or the tract between Armenia and the Caucasus. The war lasted four years, from A.D. 371 to 375. Iberia had been long dependent on Armenia, and the Persians regarded its cession as included in that of the latter country; but Rome disputed this interpretation, and war was the consequence. After four years of fighting, neither

side having obtained any decided advantage, peace was once more made, the smaller states in these parts being allowed to attach themselves to Rome or Persia according to their pleasure.

Between his first and his second Roman war, Sapor was engaged for seven years in a struggle with the Massagetæ in the Oxus region (A.D. 350–357). He succeeded in repulsing their attacks upon his frontier, and after a time converted them from enemies into friends, and hired their assistance against the Romans. On his death, in A.D. 379, he was succeeded by his son Artaxerxes II., who reigned four years only, from A.D. 379 to 383. The chief event of his reign was a war with Armenia, which occupied the whole of it, and extended into the reign of Sapor III., his successor. Sapor brought it to a close by an arrangement with Rome—the two great powers divided between them the troublesome little country, Persia obtaining the lion's share, and giving to her acquisition the name of Persarmenia.

Sapor III. reigned five years, from A.D. 383 to 388. He was succeeded by Varahran IV., who had a reign of eleven years, from A.D. 388 to 399. This prince was contemporary with Theodosius of Rome, and claimed a diplomatic triumph over him, which appears to have been connected with Armenia, but it is not clear in what it consisted. Varahran was murdered by his own

soldiers in A.D. 399, four years after the death of Theodosius, and the division of the Roman world between his sons, Honorius and Arcadius. Henceforth the history of Persia is connected, not with the Western, but only with the Eastern or Byzantine empire.

Varahran IV. was succeeded (A.D. 399) by his son, Isdigerd, a prince of a peaceful disposition. Instead of engaging in wars he devoted his attention to religion. At one time he was inclined to embrace Christianity, but later on he became a persecutor, provoked troubles in Armenia by endeavouring to force Zoroastrianism on the people of that country, and sought to extirpate the Persian Christians. Arcadius is said to have left him guardian of his son, Theodosius II., a duty which he discharged by deputy, sending Theodosius an adviser. Isdigerd died in A.D. 420, and was succeeded by his son, Varahran V.

Varahran V. continued his father's policy of persecution and thereby provoked a war with Rome, which occupied him for two years, A.D. 420–422, and terminated to his disadvantage. It was a condition of the peace made that he should respect the consciences of his Christian subjects. At the close of this war Varahran reduced Persarmenia to the condition of a satrapy. Shortly afterwards (A.D. 423) he was attacked by the White Huns or Ephthalites, a Turanian people

who continued for nearly 100 years the chief enemies of the Persian empire. At first the invaders carried all before them, occupying Margiana (Merv) and Hyrcania, and threatening Rhages. But Varahran ultimately succeeded in driving them with great loss across the Oxus, and even sent an army to chastise them in their own country. The Ephthalites upon this sued for peace, and abstained from further ravage for about twenty years. Varahran's later years were uneventful. He died A.D. 440, leaving the crown to his son, Isdigerd II.

The accession of a new sovereign tempted the Ephthalites to try the fortune of war once more. In A.D. 443 they renewed their incursions, and Isdigerd was engaged in war with them during the succeeding nine years. At length, in A.D. 451, he drove them from the left bank of the Oxus into the desert, and imagining that he had broken their power, turned his attention to Persarmenia, which he insisted on converting to Zoroastrianism. A nominal conversion was effected about A.D. 456. In the next year the Ephthalites crossed the Oxus in greater numbers than ever and ravaged Persia far and wide; Isdigerd retaliated, but was drawn into an ambush and suffered a severe defeat (A.D. 457). In the same year he died, leaving two sons, Perozes and Hormisdas.

Hormisdas, the younger of the two, having succeeded

in obtaining the crown, Perozes, his elder brother, fled to the Ephthalites, who espoused his cause. After reigning about two years (A.D. 457–459) Hormisdas IV. was driven out, and Perozes established upon the throne. Perozes reigned twenty-four years, from A.D. 459 to 483. He carried on a war with his late allies, the Ephthalites, which lasted for five years (A.D. 465–470), and was ended by a peace disgraceful to Persia. He then contended with ill success against the Koushans of the low Caspian region. Soon after revolt broke out against his authority in Persarmenia and Iberia, where the Christians rose up in arms to resist their persecutors. Finally, in A.D. 483, having rashly provoked another Ephthalite war, he was entrapped into difficulties, and lost both his army and his life.

On the death of Perozes, Balas, probably his brother, mounted the throne. He reigned four years only, from A.D. 483 to 487. He was a peaceful prince, and commenced the practice of paying tribute to the Ephthalites as the price of their remaining friendly to Persia. In Iberia and Persarmenia he reversed the policy of Perozes, withdrawing the Magian hierarchy and allowing the re-establishment of the Christian religion. His chief troubles were with pretenders. One, Zareh, he overcame. Another, Kobad, his nephew, the son of Perozes, was leading an Ephthalite contingent against him, when he died a natural death. Kobad, as a matter of course, became king, A.D. 487.

The reign of Kobad was remarkable for a new religious disturbance, and for the renewal of the struggle with Rome, in which there had been a pause for 62 years. The religious disturbance was caused by the preaching of a Communistic fanatic called Mazdak, who persuaded the king to adopt his views, and threw the whole state into confusion. After a time rebellion broke out—Kobad fled to the Ephthalites—and the nobles gave the crown to Zamasp, his younger brother, who endeavoured to crush the new sect, but without success. Mazdakism was still triumphant, when, at the end of three years (A.D. 501), Kobad returned at the head of 30,000 Ephthalites, and reclaimed his kingdom, which Zamasp did not venture to dispute with him. On his abdication, Kobad began a second reign, which lasted from A.D. 501 to 531, and was one of the most distinguished in the later Persian series. He put down Mazdakism, crushed a conspiracy which aimed at re-establishing it by his assassination, and carried on two important wars, one with the Romans and the other with the still powerful Ephthalites.

The Roman war covered altogether the space of thirty years, or the whole of Kobad's second reign, but it was broken by an interval of peace (A.D. 505–525), during which the Ephthalite struggle engaged Kobad's energies. In the first period of the Roman war Kobad was, on the whole, successful, taking Theodosiopolis and Amida, and ravaging the Roman territory; but the

sudden attack of the Ephthalites in A.D. 505 forced him to conclude a disadvantageous peace. In the second period of the war, in which Belisarius was his adversary, and which was partly in Lazica, he contended with alternate success and disaster, losing the battle of Daras in A.D. 528, but gaining that of Callinicus in A.D. 531. In the Ephthalite war, which broke the Roman war into two parts, the advantage seems to have been on neither side. It lasted 13 years—from A.D. 503 to 516. Kobad died in A.D. 531, within four months of the victory of Callinicus.

Chosroës I., the youngest son of Kobad, succeeded him. His reign lasted 48 years, and is the most important in the Sassanian series. At the outset he made peace with the Byzantine emperor, Justinian, but growing jealous of that prince's military successes in Italy and Africa, in A.D. 539 he declared war against him, and in the next year he crossed the Euphrates, and invaded Syria in force. Suron, Hierapolis, Berrhœa, Apameia and Antioch were taken; other cities were allowed to ransom themselves; and it was with an enormous booty that the victor recrossed the great river. The year following, A.D. 541, he invaded Lazica, the ancient Colchis, drove out the Romans, and took the country under his protection. Further advantages were gained, later on, in Armenia; but in A.D. 545, having failed in an attack upon Edessa, Chosroës consented to terminate his first Roman war by a five years' truce.

The second Roman war was for the possession of Lazica, which gave the Persians access to the Black Sea, and enabled them to threaten Constantinople. It lasted eight years, from A.D. 549 to 557. The Lazi were on the side of Rome, since Chosroës designed to remove them from their country and supply their place with Persians. Persia, however, made vigorous efforts, and fairly maintained her ground till A.D. 553-4, when her general, Nachoragan, suffered serious reverses —reverses which led her to consent to a truce. The truce, concluded in A.D. 557, was followed by a peace, in A.D. 562, by the terms of which the Persians gave up all claim to Lazica, on condition of receiving from the Romans an annual payment of 30,000 pieces of gold.

An Ephthalite war followed the conclusion of the truce of A.D. 557. The Turks had recently made their appearance in the Transoxianian region, and Chosroës, having made alliance with them, by their aid completely defeated the Ephthalite army. After this he had a war with the Khazars. Soon after the peace of A.D. 362, he attacked the Abyssinians in Arabia, where they had established a dependent kingdom, and after a short war drove them out of the country. Arabia generally accepted him as a deliverer.

Meanwhile, however, on his north-eastern frontier the Turks were increasing in power. They reduced the Ephthalites under their sway about A.D. 560, then

crossed the Oxus, reduced the Sogdians, and became conterminous with Persia. In A.D. 567 they quarrelled with Chosroës, and suddenly invaded his dominions. Ferghana, Samarcand, Bokhara fell, almost without resistance. Iran itself was threatened. But Chosroës was prepared for the attack. He sent his son Hormisdas against the Turks at the head of a large army; and the Turks, if we may believe our authorities, were so panic-stricken that they retreated without venturing on an engagement.

But the invasion of the Turks had excited the attention of the Byzantine court, and raised hopes of destroying Persia by attacking her on two sides. The alliance of the Turks was sought and obtained, and in A.D. 573 the third Roman war of Chosroës began. The Turks, however, were slow in their movements, and Rome found herself opposed to the full force of Persia for the six years during which the war lasted. On the whole Persia had the advantage, and Rome was at the point of suing for peace when, in A.D. 579, Chosroës died.

His place was taken by his son, Hormisdas, who is known as Hormisdas IV. War with Rome occupied him during the greater part of his reign, during which he contended by his generals with the Roman commanders, Maurice, Philippicus and Heraclius, without any decided advantage being gained by either party.

At home his rule was tyrannical and alienated from him the affections of his subjects. His growing unpopularity encouraged his neighbours to attack him on all sides, and in A.D. 589 he had to repel invasions of his territories on the part of four adversaries—the Khazars, the Arabs, the Turks and the Romans. Victorious over the first three, Hormisdas was so enraged by the ill-success of his general against the fourth that he hastily recalled him, whereupon the general, Bahram, revolted and marched upon Ctesiphon. The news of his approach gave the signal for a revolution; Hormisdas was murdered in his palace, and his son, Chosroës, proclaimed king.

Bahram, however, had gone too far to retreat. The war which he had begun against the father he prosecuted against the son, and with such success that he forced Chosroës to fly for protection to the Byzantine emperor, Maurice, and entering Ctesiphon was acknowledged as king. He reigned, however, less than two years (A.D. 589–591), being in his turn driven from his throne by Chosroës, who had obtained an army of 70,000 men from Maurice by the promised cession of Persarmenia and Eastern Mesopotamia.

Chosroës II. began his reign by carrying out his agreement with the Byzantine emperor, and yielding up the fruits of the last hundred years of struggle. He was then engaged for the space of twenty years in a

series of wars against the Turks, the Ephthalites and the Koushans, in which he was only so far successful as to maintain his frontier against those foes. At length, in A.D. 603, he developed new powers and showed a completely new spirit, entering upon a career of conquest which carried him in one direction to Chalcedon and Constantinople, in another to Jerusalem, Pelusium and Alexandria. Daras fell in A.D. 605; Carrhæ and Edessa in A.D. 607; Hierapolis, Kenneserin, and Berrhœa in the next year; Satala and Theodosiopolis in A.D. 609; Antioch and Apameia in A.D. 611; Cæsaræa Mazaca in A.D. 612; Damascus in A.D. 614; Jerusalem in A.D. 615; Pelusium and Alexandria in A.D. 616; Chalcedon in A.D. 617. Asia Minor, Syria and Egypt were added to the dominions of the Sassanidæ; monuments were erected and palaces built, which showed the design of a permanent occupation. From A.D. 617 to 621 desperate attempts were made to obtain possession of Constantinople, which was menaced by the Persians from the Asiatic shores of the Bosphorus, while the Avars, who were in alliance with Chosroës, attacked it on the land side from Bulgaria and Thrace. The empire of the Sassanidæ reached at this point its greatest extent and its greatest glory. Henceforth it declined.

The decline was as extraordinary as the advance. In A.D. 622, the Byzantine emperor, Heraclius, drawing courage from despair, left his capital to defend itself as

it might, and threw himself on the Asiatic coast at Issus, whence he could menace at once Asia Minor, Syria and Armenia. Attacked by Shahr-Barz, the greatest of the generals of Chosroës, he repulsed him and gained a complete victory. The next year he appeared in a new quarter, first at Trebizond, and then in Lazica. Having obtained a Khazar contigent, he invaded Armenia, and passed thence into N. Media, which he ravaged at pleasure, Chosroës declining an engagement. The war continued in this quarter till A.D. 625, when Heraclius, having wintered in Armenia, marched westward, recovered Martyropolis, Amida and Samosata, whence he proceeded into Cilicia, and once more took up a position near Issus. Here he fought a second battle with Shahr-Barz, the issue of which was doubtful, but which caused that general to retreat. In A.D. 626 Chosroës renewed his efforts against Constantinople, but again failed signally. Finally, in A.D. 627, Heraclius made his last and most extraordinary campaign. Starting from Lazica, he passed through Atropatene or N. Media, and crossing the Zagros Range, entered Assyria, defeated the Persians in a great battle near the site of Nineveh, pressed on to Dastagherd, burnt the royal palace there and recovered 300 standards, and advanced southward within sight of Ctesiphon. His arrival caused a palace revolution. Chosroës was begged by his nobles to make peace, but declined, whereupon they imprisoned him, and placed his eldest son, Siroës, upon the throne (A.D. 628).

Meanwhile, Heraclius had retired into Atropatene, and gone into winter quarters at Canzaca. Siroës, who had taken the name of Kobad, and is known as Kobad II., sent ambassadors to him to sue for peace, which was granted on the terms of the *status quo ante bellum*, Persia thus falling back into her old position, and gaining nothing by all the victories of Chosroës.

Kobad II. reigned little more than a year. He was jealous of his brothers and put several of them to death, after which he sank into a profound melancholy, and succumbed, either to his mental affliction or to the plague which was raging at the time, A.D. 629. He was succeeded by his son, Artaxerxes III., a boy of seven.

The accession of so young a prince, and the dearth of other candidates having any clear claim to the throne, tempted the general, Shahr-Barz, to lift his thoughts to the lofty position. His aspirations were encouraged by Heraclius, who no doubt considered that internal troubles, however they ended, would weaken the power in which he saw his most dangerous enemy. With Roman troops, lent by the emperor, Shahr-Barz marched upon Ctesiphon, deposed and killed Artaxerxes, and was proclaimed and accepted as king. But within less than two months the native troops which guarded the capital mutinied, and put Shahr-Barz to death, proclaiming at the same time that

they would treat similarly anyone who, not being of the blood royal, should presume to seat himself on the Persian throne.

Shahr-Barz was killed either in A.D. 629 or 630. A time of confusion and anarchy followed, when, as Gibbon says, "every province and almost each city of Persia was the scene of independence, of discord, and of bloodshed." Various pretenders to the throne set themselves up, but none of them was able to maintain himself or to procure a general acceptance of his rule. Among the rest, two daughters of Chosroës II., Purandocht and Azermidocht, seem to have been put forward by their partisans as queens.

At length, in June, A.D. 632, the nation, or more probably the nobles, weary of anarchy, appointed a king in the person of Isdigerd III., a grandson of the last Chosroës. Isdigerd was a youth of no more than 15 or 16 years of age, quite unfit to grapple with the difficulties of the situation which he was called upon to fill. Mohammedanism had grown up, both as a religion and as a political system, while Heraclius and Chosroës were engaged in their deadly feud. It passed through the dangerous crisis, which was to determine whether it was to live or die upon the death of its founder, just as Isdigerd was getting settled upon the throne, A.D. 632–3. Its career of conquest then began. Abu-Bekr, by his lieutenants attacked Rome and Persia at the same time.

SYNCHRONOLOGICAL TABLES

OF

ANCIENT HISTORY.

SYNCHRONOLOGICAL TABLES OF ANCIENT HISTORY.

B.C.		EGYPT.	
2500	OLD EMPIRE.	I. DYNASTY. Commencement of Monarchy in Egypt. Sneferu, Khufu, Shafra (at Memphis). Pyramids of Ghizeh.	2500 2400
2400		II. DYNASTY. At Memphis.	2400 2300
2300		III. DYNASTY. At Abydos. Completion of Third Pyramid.	2300 2200
2200		IV. DYNASTY. Disintegration of Empire. Theban Dynasty. Second Egyptian Civilization. End of Pyramid Building.	2200 2100
2100		V. & VI. DYNASTIES. Amen-em-hat, I-IV. Usertasen, I-III. Extension of Empire. Introduction of Obelisks.	2090 ......
2000		....	......
1900		Pretenders and Anarchy. End of Old Empire. Egypt Conquered by Hyksos.	1900

The Celts or Gauls, the earliest known inhabitants of the modern France and Belgium, had begun to swarm over the Alps into Italy about B.C. 400. They conquered Northern Etruria and settled themselves in the plain of the Po about the same time that the Romans took Veii; and it was perhaps owing to their attacks that Veii was allowed to fall. Soon afterwards their hordes began to cross the Apennines, and to ravage and plunder Central and Southern Italy. One horde descended the valley of the Tiber, swept away the Roman force which tried to stop it on the Allia, swooped upon Rome and took it, all but the Capitol. So, at least, said the tradition, which made the Gauls retire after a siege of some months, on the payment of one thousand pounds of gold, leaving the Capitol uninjured. But a terrible blow had been dealt—the city was destroyed, the bulk of the armed force swept away, the state utterly impoverished. For a time there were thoughts of deserting the unlucky site, and removing to Veii. But better counsels prevailed. Rome rose again from her ashes, and after a time recovered her former position among the Italic states, but only after thirty years of struggle with the neighbouring tribes (B.C. 385—355) Etruscans, Æqui, Volsci, even Latins and Hernicans. But the league with these last was renewed about B.C. 355, and it was not long ere Rome felt strong enough to resume her policy of aggression.

The enemy now attacked was the great power of

with Latium by a close alliance, which for many years was of the greatest service to her. For she was placed in the midst of alien and hostile nations. On the north the Etruscans, on the east the Sabines, on the south and south-west, the Oscan tribes, especially the Æqui and Volsci, were her bitter enemies, and aimed continually at her destruction. Fortunately for her, they were also foes to each other and disinclined to unite; but even so, she could scarcely have resisted the continual attacks which she had to sustain, if it had not been for the aid lent her by the Latins, and after a time by the Hernicans.

It was towards the close of the fifth century, about B.C. 420, after the Republic had been established for 90 years, that Rome first showed herself aggressive. The enemy against whom she directed her earliest attacks was Etruria. An exceedingly loose confederacy held together the Etruscan towns, each of which might have its own private wars, without their concerning any other. Rome began by attacking her nearest neighbour among the Etruscan cities, Fidenæ. Having conquered Fidenæ, she proceeded to make war on Veii. Veii, we are told, resisted for ten years but was taken in B.C. 392 by Camillus. Then Falerii was attacked and forced to submit, together with Nepete and Sutrium. War was now made upon Volsinii, one of the chief cities of the league, which would probably have been reduced but for a sudden inroad.

ufficiently bold, and felt himself sufficiently l to shake off their control, they were apt him and dispense with monarchy altogether. eed such outrages as are ascribed to the last bring the change about; but such outrages nes occur, witness the history of Harmodius ogiton. The Roman nobles, after expelling ook the real government into their own hands, directing power being the senate, and the e alone being committed to two "Prætors" or s," who were to hold office for no more than a he idea of the *two* chiefs may have been taken arthage or Sparta, the limitation of office to a as common among the cities of Magna Græcia.

e have seen that Rome's relations to Latium ds the close of the kingly period were those of a ting and dominant power over one weaker and me extent subject. This is clear from the text e First Treaty with Carthage. It appears that the motions incidental to a change of government, and aps a temporary subjection of Rome to an Etruscan , Porsenna, produced a rupture of these relations; the first important war in which the Republic aged, was with the Latins for the recovery by Rome her old position. The war was terminated by the at battle at the Lake Regillus; and in the peace ich followed (about B.C. 490), Rome, if she did not ite regain her old place, became at any rate united

LINE OF THE MACCABEE PRINCES.

B.C. B.C.	Name of Ruler.	Duration of Rule.	Contemporary Syrian Monarchs.
168—167	1. Mattathias	1 year	Antiochus Epiphanes.
167—160	2. Judas Maccabeus	7 years	Antiochus Epiphanes. Antiochus Eupator. Demetrius Soter.
160—144	3. Jonathan	16 years	Demetrius Soter. Alexander Balas. Demetrius Nicator.
144—135	4. Simon	9 years	Demetrius Nicator. Antiochus Sidetes.
135—106	5. John Hyrcanus	29 years	Kings from Antiochus Sidetes to Antiochus IX.
106—105	6. Aristobulus I.	1 year	Antiochus VIII. & IX.
105— 78	7. Alex. Jannæus	27 years	Kings from Antiochus VIII. to Tigranes.
78—70	8. Alexandra	8 years	Tigranes.
70—57	9. Hyrcanus	13 years	Tigranes. Antiochus XI.
57—47	10. Aristobulus II.	10 years	
47—40	Hyrcanus (a second time)	7 years	
40—37	11. Antigonus	3 years	

Matt... was the original leader of the revolt.

The c... the most important was Menander,
Justin ca... 100.
that abou...
Mithridat...
In B.C. 9... *i.*—KINGDOM OF PARTHIA.
Tigranes...
a powerful ...ian kingdom was established about the
the Parth... ...he Bactrian, B.C. 250, but not in the same
provinces ... a revolt of the people, not of a satrap.
which he b... ...thian kingdom, though formed out of
Syria to hi... empire, was in no sense Macedonian, and
to 69. In ...ed on during the greater part of the Roman
Romans a... account of it will be deferred until the
to Antioch... ...n.
till B.C. 6...
attack of ... *j.*—KINGDOM OF JUDÆA.
Pompey ...
quishing ...ea, in the division made by the successors of
him the ...der, fell in the first instance to Ptolemy Lagi,
reign he ...s thus attached to Egypt. The earlier Ptolemies
which ne... the Jews with especial favour. But an opposite
was succ... being introduced by Ptolemy IV. (Philopator),
was an a... Jewish nation was offended, and voluntarily
so disastr... ...ned itself to the Syrian kingdom of the Seleu-
a Parthia... about B.C. 200. No cause of complaint arose
son, Pacor... about B.C. 170, when Antiochus Epiphanes, having
on his side... ...ered the temples, attempted to uproot altogether
his expedit... ...ewish religion. This led to a revolt of the more
however, c... ...ous Jews, and to the establishment of indepen-
... under the princes, called "the Maccabees."

of Asia Minor, who usurped the throne.
was attacked by Antiochus the Grea
and defeated on the Heri-rud. Terms,
granted him. His son, Demetrius, rece
riage a daughter of Antiochus, and the
of the Bactrian kingdom was acknowle
trius appears to have made conquests t
the Paropamisus in his father's lifetime
death of Euthydemus, about B.C. 200, De
tinued his career of conquest, became mas
of Afghanistan and a portion of the Pun
Demetrias in Arachosia, and Euthedeme
Hydaspes, and reigned gloriously till he wa
ted in his original dominions by a certain E
who ruled over the country north of the
while Demetrius held those to the south, until th
of the latter, about B.C. 180, when Eucratidas b
king of both regions. Eucratidas warred against
and Parthia, gaining ground in the former and
it in the latter direction. He was murdered b
son Heliocles, whom he had associated with hi
the government. Heliocles, the last king, rei
from about B.C. 160 to 150. He was attacked by
Scythians on the north and the Parthians on the
and south, and was forced to yield his kingdom t
latter. Offshoots from the Bactrian kingdom
tinued to rule in Cabul and Candahar till abo
80, when they were swept away by the Yue-
other Tatar tribes. Of these princes, who

—Kingdom of Bactria.

n kingdom was founded by Diodotus,
ntiochus II., about B.C. 255. It lasted
50, when it was absorbed into Parthia.
all bore Greek names and maintained
lisation, were the following :—

	Name of King.	Length of Reign.
	1. Diodotus I.	18 years.
	2. Diodotus II.	15 years.
200	3. Euthydemus	22 years (?)
-180	4. Demetrius	20 years (?)
-160	5. Eucratidas	20 years (?)
-150	6. Heliocles	10 years (?)

otus I. revolted from Antiochus Theus B.C.
bmitted probably to Ptol. Euergetes B.C.
d assisted Callinicus against Parthia, B.C. 237,
year he died, leaving the crown to his son,
s II. This prince pursued a different policy
father. He allied himself with Arsaces II.
) of Parthia, and probably assisted him in
the Syrian yoke. About B.C. 222, either he
s forced to yield to Euthydemus, a Greek

The date of the accession of the second king, whom Justin calls Ortoadistes, is uncertain. It is only known that about B.C. 100 he was engaged in war with Mithridates of Parthia, and successfully resisted him. In B.C. 96 he was succeeded by his son, the great Tigranes, who raised Armenia from a petty kingdom to a powerful empire. In his earlier years he warred with the Parthians, and took from them the important provinces of Atropatene and Gordyene, in the latter of which he built his capital, Tigranocerta. He then added Syria to his dominions, and reigned as king from B.C. 83 to 69. In B.C. 69 he joined Mithridates against the Romans and lost Syria, which was given by Lucullus to Antiochus Asiaticus. The Roman war occupied him till B.C. 66, when he was forced to yield to the joint attack of Pompey and the Parthian monarch, Phraates. Pompey granted him peace on condition of his relinquishing all his conquests, but afterwards restored to him the province of Gordyene. During the rest of his reign he occupied himself in a war with Parthia, from which neither state derived any advantage. Tigranes was succeeded, B.C. 55, by his son, Artavasdes. He was an ally of Crassus in the Parthian war which had so disastrous a termination, but afterwards concluded a Parthian alliance, marrying his daughter to Orodes' son, Pacorus. When Pacorus invaded Syria, he fought on his side (B.C. 51), but later, he assisted Antony in his expedition against Atropatene (B.C. 36). Antony, however, complained that he was deserted by Arta-

Then, however, he lost his kingdom for a third tim being driven out by Tigranes and Mithridates i conjunction. A third restoration followed on Pompey' success in B.C. 66; but the king was tired of thes vicissitudes, and in B.C. 64 abdicated in favour of h. son, Ariobarzanes II. This prince, the friend of Cicero, held the crown from B.C. 64 to 42. He sided with Pompey against Cæsar in their civil war, but opposed the "Liberators," and was put to death by Cassius. Antony, after Philippi, conferred the Cappadocian crown upon a prince who is thought to have been a son of Ariobarzanes II., but who took the old royal name and reigned as Ariarathes IX. In a short time he lost his patron's favour and was assassinated to make room for a creature of Antony's, named Archelaus. Archelaus was the last monarch. He ruled Cappadocia, as a Roman tributary, for 51 years, from B.C. 36 to A.D. 15, when he was summoned to Rome by Tiberius, whom he had offended by not paying him court when he was in exile at Rhodes. Cappadocia was then made a Roman province.

f.—Kingdom of the Greater Armenia.

In the division of Alexander's empire after Ipsus, Armenia fell, with the other eastern provinces, to Seleucus, and formed a portion of the Seleucid kingdom

till the defeat of Antiochus the Great at Magnesia. It then revolted, and became split into the two kingdoms of Armenia Major and Armenia Minor. The first known king of Armenia Major was Artaxias, who reigned probably from B.C. 190 to 165, when he was attacked, defeated, and made prisoner by Antiochus Epiphanes, who re-attached Armenia to the Syrian empire. The subjection does not, however, appear to have continued very long. Before the end of the second century, we find Armenia again independent, under a monarch called Ortoadistes. The line of kings then runs on without interruption to the time of Tigranes II., when the independence of Armenia ceased.

Armenian Kings from B.C. 190 to B.C. 19.

B.C. B.C.	Name of Kings.	Length of Reign.
190—165	1. Artaxias I.	25 years.
Abt. 100—96	2. Ortoadistes	4 years (?)
96—55	3. Tigranes I.	41 years.
55—34	4. Artavasdes	21 years.
34—20	5. Artaxias II.	14 years.
20—19	6. Tigranes II.	

Ariarathes II., who revolted on the death of Eumenes, B.C. 315, defeated the Macedonian general, Amyntas, and expelled the foreign garrisons. No attempt seems to have been made to reduce him to subjection either by Antigonus or Seleucus; and he left his crown to his eldest son, Ariamnes, about B.C. 280. This prince made alliance with Antiochus II. of Syria, who gave his daughter, Stratonice, as wife to Ariamnes' son, Ariarathes III. Of Ariarathes III. nothing more is known, except that he reigned till about B.C. 220, when he was succeeded by his infant son, who is known as Ariarathes IV. Ariarathes IV., who was first cousin to Antiochus the Great, married his daughter, Antiochis, and attached himself to his fortunes. He bore a part in the great battle of Magnesia, and thus offended Rome, but made his peace by forming an alliance with Eumenes II. of Pergamus, Rome's *protégé*, and giving him a daughter in marriage. He assisted Eumenes in his war with Pharnaces of Pontus, after which he was forced to contend for many years with the Gauls, who attempted to seize a portion of his territory. Ariarathes V. (Philopator) succeeded his father in B.C. 162. He maintained alliance with the Romans, and when driven from his kingdom by a pretender, Orophernes, was reinstated by them. He lent Attalus of Pergamus important aid in his war against Prusias (B.C. 156–154), and assisted Rome against Aristonicus, B.C. 131. He was a patron of literature, and a man of blameless character. Ariarathes having left behind him

till the def...
then revolt...
of Armen...
known ki...
reigned p...
attacked...
F

...ly infant sons, Laodice, his widow, became regent, ...d kept the royal authority in her hands for a long term ... years by murdering her sons ere they became of full ...e. All perished except the youngest, who was placed ... the throne by a revolution in which Laodice lost her life, and reigned as Ariarathes VI. He took to wife a sister of Mithridates the Great, but, not being wholly trusted by that ambitious prince, was assassinated by his orders in B.C. 96. Mithridates at first assumed the crown of Cappadocia himself, but the popular indignation soon compelled him to relinquish it, and to place the son of the late monarch on the throne, under the title of Ariarathes VII. However, after two years the Pontic monarch removed him, as he had removed his father, and attempted to make one of his own sons, a boy of eight, king. This attempt the Cappadocians resisted with success, and another son of Ariarathes VI. was put upon the throne, who reigned as Ariarathes VIII. After a year, however, Mithridates drove him out, B.C. 93, whereupon he sickened and died, bringing the first royal house of Cappadocia to an end. A new prince was chosen by the voice of the people who ruled as Ariobarzanes I. Cappadocia now found a fresh enemy in Armenia, which had allied itself with Pontus. Ariobarzanes was driven from his kingdom by Tigranes in B.C. 93, but restored by Rome the next year. In B.C. 88 he was again ejected, this time by Mithridates, and remained in exile four years, but recovered his crown by the peace of B.C. 84, and reigned quietly till B.C. 67.

Western conquests, the payment of 2,000 talents, and the delivery into the enemy's hands of his fleet of 70 ships. The second war was provoked by Rome, almost without a pretext, but was perhaps, the act of the Roman general, Murena, rather than of the state itself. Murena was successful in B.C. 83, but in the next year, suffered a complete defeat, on which, peace was made without difficulty. The third war was one of the greatest of the struggles between the East and the West. It was precipitated by Mithridates, who had made every preparation for it, and trusted greatly to his close alliance with Tigranes of Armenia, his son-in-law. Rome found herself for eight years scarcely a match for the two allies. She gained victories, but made no serious impression. It was not till B.C. 66, the last year of the war, that the genius of Pompey turned the scale. His alliance with Phraates of Parthia completely changed all the conditions, divided the allies, paralysed Tigranes, and left him only Mithridates to contend with. The result was the defeat and collapse of the Pontic monarch, who quitted his kingdom, and in B.C. 65 retired to the Tauric Chersonese, where his son, Pharnaces, and his subjects conspired against him, and despairing of successful resistance, he caused one of his guards to take his life. Pharnaces II. submitted to Rome, and was a tributary king till the war between Pompey and Cæsar, when he ventured on revolt. Cæsar crushed him at Zela, in B.C. 47, and wrote on the battlefield the famous despatch—"Veni, vidi, vici."

e.—Kingdom of Cappadocia.

Cappadocia became an independent kingdom under Ariarathes I., on the collapse of the Persian empire, about B.C. 331. It was temporarily subjected by Perdiccas, and made over to Eumenes, but reasserted its independence in B.C. 315, and thenceforward remained a kingdom till A.D. 15. The line of monarchs is the following:—

B.C. B.C.	Name of King.	Length of Reign.
331—322	1. Ariarathes I.	9 years.
315—280	2. Ariarathes II.	35 years.
Abt. 280—250	3. Ariamnes	30 years (?)
Abt. 250—220	4. Ariarathes III.	30 years (?)
220—162	5. Ariarathes IV.	58 years.
162—131	6. Ariarathes V.	31 years.
131—96	7. Ariarathes VI.	35 years.
96—94	8. Ariarathes VII.	2 years.
94—93	9. Ariarathes VIII.	1 year.
93—64	10. Ariobarzanes I.	29 years.
64—42	11. Ariobarzanes II.	22 years.
42—36	12. Ariarathes IX.	6 years.
36—A.D. 15	13. Archelaus	51 years.

against him, overran Paphlagonia, expelled the king, Morzes, and poured his troops into Cappadocia and Galatia. Eumenes, however, repulsed his attack, and in the peace which followed, Pharnaces lost all his gains except Sinope. The time of his death is doubtful; but may be placed about B.C. 160. Mithridates IV. (Euergetes), his son, whose reign followed, is thought to have held the crown about 40 years—from B.C. 160 to 120. He assisted Attalus II., of Pergamus, against Prusias II., of Bithynia, about B.C. 154, and helped Rome both against Carthage, B.C. 150—146, and against Aristonicus, B.C. 131. For this last service he was rewarded by the gift of the Greater Phrygia. His servants assassinated him at Sinope, about B.C. 120. Mithridates V., deservedly known as "The Great," succeeded. He raised the Pontic kingdom into an empire. For eight years a minor, he could do nothing but train his own mind and body, which he did by the study of languages and the pursuit of hunting. Of languages, he is said to have spoken twenty-five. At the age of twenty, he started on a career of conquest, choosing a field where Rome could not interfere with him. In the space of seven years he added to his dominions the Lesser Armenia, Colchis, the entire eastern coast of the Black Sea, the Crimea or Chersonesus Taurica, and the entire tract between that region and the Dniestr. He then strengthened himself with alliances, first with the tribes on the Danube, Getæ, Sarmatæ, and others, then with the

monarchs of Western Asia. He had early given his sister, Laodice, in marriage to Ariarathes, king of Cappadocia; about B.C. 96, he married his daughter Cleopatra to Tigranes, king of Armenia. About the same time he began aggression towards the west. In B.C. 102, he made an alliance with Nicomedes II., of Bithynia, for the partition of Paphlagonia, and occupied Galatia the same year. He then attacked Cappadocia and placed his nephew Ariarathes VII. upon the throne. Soon afterwards he murdered this prince, and set on the throne a son of his own, a boy of eight; but Cappadocia revolted and resumed independence B.C. 93. The three wars with Rome followed. The first lasted six years, from B.C. 88 to 84; the second, two only, B.C. 83–82; the third, nine, B.C. 74 to 65. In the first, Mithridates was the aggressor. He took possession of Cappadocia and Bithynia, completely defeating Nicomedes and his Roman allies, overran Galatia, Phrygia, and even the Roman province of "Asia," and made himself master of almost the whole of Asia Minor, B.C. 88. He then gave the order for the massacre on one day of all the Romans in his dominions, which caused the death of 80,000 persons. In B.C. 87, he carried the war into Europe, sending over two armies under two generals in that year and the next. But in B.C. 86 the tide of war turned against him. Sulla completely defeated his troops at Chæroneia, while Fimbria invaded Asia Minor. In B.C. 85, Mithridates was reduced to sue for peace, which he obtained in B.C. 84 by the surrender of all his

Line of Pontic Kings.

B.C. B.C.	Name of King.	Length of Reign.
363—337	1. Ariobarzanes I.	26 years.
337—302	2. Mithridates I.	35 years.
302—266	3. Mithridates II.	36 years.
266—245	4. Ariobarzanes II.	21 years.
245—190	5. Mithridates III.	55 (?) years.
Abt. 190—160	6. Pharnaces I.	30 (?) years.
Abt. 160—120	7. Mithridates IV.	40 (?) years.
Abt. 120—63	8. Mithridates V.	57 (?) years.
63—47	9. Pharnaces II.	16 years.

Ariobarzanes I., the founder of the kingdom, reigned 26 years. No attempt appears to have been made, either by Mnemon or by Ochus, to reduce him to subjection. He died B.C. 337, leaving his crown to his son, Mithridates. Mithridates I. reigned 35 years. He stood aloof from the contest between Alexander and Darius Codomannus, but about B.C. 322, was forced to submit to Perdiccas, who allowed him the status of a tributary monarch. This status he maintained under Antigonus till B.C. 318, when, finding that Antigonus was plotting his death, he revolted and resumed a separate sovereignty. In B.C. 317, he supported

Eumenes against Antigonus; and in B.C. 302, he was about to join the league of the satraps against the same chief, when Antigonus caused him to be assassinated. His son, Mithridates II., succeeded. He added considerably to his hereditary dominions by acquisitions in Cappadocia and Paphlagonia, and even undertook to defend the Greeks of Heracleia Pontica against Seleucus; but, on the whole, he was not greatly distinguished. He left the throne to his son, Ariobarzanes, after reigning 36 years. Ariobarzanes II., reigned 21 years only. He repulsed an attack of Ptol. Euergetes by the assistance of the Gauls, but afterwards quarrelled with his allies, and was engaged in a long contest with them. He obtained possession of the Greek town of Amastris on the Euxine, which was ceded to him by its dynast. About B.C. 245, he was succeeded by his son, Mithridates III., who was a minor. This prince was the most remarkable of the early Pontic monarchs. He advanced his interests both by arms and by intermarriages. With his wife, who was a sister of Seleucus Callinicus, he received Phrygia as a dowry. He gave one daughter in marriage to Antiochus the Great, and another to Achæus, Antiochus's cousin. In the war between Seleucus Callinicus and Antiochus Hierax he aided the latter. He also attacked Sinope on the Euxine, but was unable to conquer it. Pharnaces I., his son, succeeded him about B.C. 190. He captured Sinope about B.C. 183, and made it the royal residence. Growing jealous of Eumenes II. about the same time, he took the field

c.—KINGDOM OF PAPHLAGONIA.

It is uncertain when Paphlagonia became an independent kingdom. It had been attached to his kingdom by Mithridates of Pontus at the time of the dissolution of the Persian Empire; but must have revolted about B.C. 200, or a little later. Three kings only, belonging to this period, are known to us:—1. Morzes, or Morzias. He fought against the Romans in the Gallo-Grecian War, B.C. 189; was attacked by Pharnaces of Pontus in B.C. 181, defeated and driven out, but reinstated by Eumenes II., of Pergamus, in B.C. 179. 2. Pylæmenes I. He assisted the Romans in their war with Aristonicus of Pergamus, B.C. 131; and is said to have bequeathed his kingdom to Mithridates. 3. Pylæmenes II., son of Nicomedes II., of Bithynia, was placed on the throne by his father, B.C. 102, but was forced to retire by Mithridates about B.C. 90. Paphlagonia became a part of Mithridates' empire.

d.—KINGDOM OF PONTUS.

The kingdom of Pontus was founded by a certain Ariobarzanes, hereditary satrap of the province of Cappadocia (Katapatuka) in B.C. 363, during the reign of Artaxerxes Mnemon. It was ruled by nine kings between this date and B.C. 47, when Pharnaces II. succumbed to Julius Cæsar at Zela. Its whole duration was 316 years.

the most wicked and contemptible of the Bithynian monarchs. He allied himself with Perseus of Macedon against Rome, but was afraid to lend him any aid. He attacked Attalus II., but desisted as soon as Rome threatened him, gave up his conquests, and consented to pay Attalus 500 talents. Having offended his subjects by his cruelties and impieties, he grew jealous of his son, Nicomedes, and attempted to have him assassinated. Nicomedes, upon this, headed a rebellion, and by the help of Attalus, dethroned his father, and put him to death. Nicomedes III. (Epiphanes) reigned 58 years. He took an active part in the many wars which at the time desolated Asia Minor, assisting the Romans against Aristonicus, B.C. 133—130, and Laodicé of Cappadocia against Mithridates. He attempted to absorb Cappadocia and Paphlagonia into his dominions, but Rome would not allow it. He died at about the age of eighty, B.C. 91. At his death there was once more a contest for the crown. Socrates, the second son, maintained that Nicomedes, the eldest, was illegitimate, and being supported by Mithridates, drove Nicomedes out, B.C. 91. Rome, however, reinstated him in the next year. Mithridates then, by a vast effort, drove Nicomedes and his Roman allies out of Asia, B.C. 88. The first Mithridatic war followed, and at its close, B.C. 84, Nicomedes was reinstated for the second time. He then reigned in peace for ten years, and at his death followed the example of Attalus III., of Pergamus, by leaving his dominions as a legacy to the Romans.

LINE OF BITHYNIAN KINGS.

B.C. B.C.	Name of King.	Length of Reign.
334—326	1. Bas	8 years.
326—278	2. Zipœtes	48 years.
278—248	3. Nicomedes I.	30 years.
248—228	4. Zeïlas	20 years.
228—180	5. Prusias I.	48 years.
180—149	6. Prusias II.	31 years.
149— 91	7. Nicomedes II.	58 years.
91— 74	8. Nicomedes III.	17 years.

Zipœtes, the son of Bas, successfully maintained himself against the attacks of Lysimachus on the one hand and Antiochus Soter on the other. He claimed and exercised a suzerainty over the Greek cities of Heracleia Pontica, Astacus and Chalcedon. His long reign of 48 years was mostly uneventful. At his death, B.C. 278, the succession was disputed between his two elder sons, Nicomedes and Zipœtes. Nicomedes, doubtful of success, called in the Gauls from Europe to his assistance, and by their aid got the better of his brother, and established himself upon the throne.

Attacked by Antiochus Soter, he defended himself by the same aid, and succeeded in repelling his assailant. He then reigned peacefully for about thirty years, leaving his crown, not to his eldest son, Zeïlas, whom he had banished, but to his sons by a second wife, Prusias and Tibœtes, B.C. 248. Zeïlas, however, refused to submit tamely to this arrangement. He took up arms, hired the services of a band of Gauls, entered Bithynia, and commenced a civil war against the partisans of his brothers. In this he was speedily successful, and established his authority over the kingdom. Very little is known of his later history; but he seems to have warred with some advantage both in Paphlagonia and in Cappadocia, where he certainly founded cities. He reigned about 20 years, and finally perished in an attempt to destroy by treachery a number of Gallic chiefs at a banquet. Prusias, his eldest son, succeeded him, and is known in history as Prusias I., or "Prusias the lame." He offended the Romans by attacking Eumenes of Pergamus, and also by sheltering Hannibal. Left to himself, he would probably have largely increased his dominions; but Rome interfered, demanded Hannibal, who thereupon committed suicide, and forced Prusias to cede a province to the prince whom he had assailed. He endeavoured to compensate himself by attacking Heracleia Pontica, but in the war that ensued he received a wound of which he died, B.C. 180. Prusias II., the son of Prusias I., who succeeded, was

Unless he was a victim to madness he must be denounced as a monster of iniquity. He put to death all the old counsellors of his father and uncle with their families, assassinated every person who had held an office of trust, finally turned against his own relations, and even put to death his mother, for whom he had professed the warmest love. He then abandoned the cares of state, and devoted himself to painting, sculpture and gardening. To crown all, he left his dominions by will to the Roman people, B.C. 133. Rome accepted the legacy, but had to dispute the prize with Aristonicus, an illegitimate son of Eumenes II., who seized the throne and resisted the Romans in arms for three years. But the contest was too unequal, and in B.C. 130 Aristonicus had to yield to Perperna, and Pergamus shortly afterwards became a Roman province.

b.—Kingdom of Bithynia.

Bithynia had been allowed a species of semi-independence under the later Persians, and was ruled by its own king, Bas, when Alexander invaded Asia. Bas maintained himself against the generals of Alexander, and may be regarded as the founder of the independent Bithynian kingdom. This kingdom lasted 260 years under eight monarchs.

temples, encouraged literature and art, and made Pergamus a sort of literary rival to Alexandria. The literary eminence of Pergamus is enshrined in the word "parchment" (*charta Pergamena*), a Pergamene invention. Eumenes II., the eldest son of Attalus, succeeded him, and followed out the policy of his father. He aided Rome against Philip, against Antiochus, and against Perseus. In return he received, after Magnesia, a large augmentation of his dominions, which were made to include the Chersonese in Europe, Mysia, Lydia, Phrygia, Lycaonia, Pamphylia, and parts of Lycia and Caria in Asia. Later he took territory from Prusias of Bithynia, B.C. 183, and warred with Pharnaces of Pontus, B.C. 183—179, and with the Gauls, B.C. 168. He continued the patronage of art and literature, and founded the great Pergamene library, which almost rivalled the Alexandrian. As his son, Attalus, was too young to reign, his brother, Attalus III. (Philadelphus), succeeded him, and held the crown twenty-one years. His chief war was one with Prusias II. of Bithynia, who defeated him in several engagements, and would probably have conquered Pergamus if Rome had not interfered, compelled Prusias to retire, and even to compensate her *protégé* for his losses. Attalus afterwards helped Nicomedes to dethrone his father, Prusias, and reigned peacefully from B.C. 149 to 138, employing himself in the patronage of art and in the building of cities. At his death, Attalus, the son of Eumenes II., was made king, and took the name of Philometor.

IV.—*History of the Smaller States and Kingdoms formed out of Alexander's Monarchy.*

a.—Kingdom of Pergamus.

The kingdom of Pergamus was founded in the course of the war waged between Seleucus I. and Lysimachus. It was governed in succession by seven kings, whose reigns covered the space of 152 years. (See the subjoined table.)

B.C. B.C.	Name of King.	Length of Reign.
281—263	1. Philetærus	18 years.
263—241	2. Eumenes I.	22 years.
241—197	3. Attalus I.	44 years.
197—159	4. Eumenes II.	38 years.
159—138	5. Attalus II.	21 years.
138—133	6. Attalus III.	5 years.
133—130	7. Aristonicus	3 years.

Philetærus, the founder, was a eunuch who had

been made governor of Pergamus by Lysimachus, and who, on his death at Corupedion, asserted independence and set himself up as king. In the disturbed state of Asia Minor he was unmolested, and after reigning eighteen years was able to transmit his crown to his nephew, Eumenes, the son of Eumenes, his brother. Eumenes I. was attacked soon after his accession by Antiochus (Soter), but defeated him in a great battle near Sardis, and lost to him the greater part of Lydia. Eumenes is said to have died from the effects of over-drinking. He bequeathed Pergamus to Attalus, his first cousin, the son of Attalus, another brother of Philetærus. Attalus I. was the greatest of the Pergamene monarchs. In the early part of his reign he gained a great victory over the Gauls, after which he engaged in war with Antiochus Hierax, brother of Seleucus Callinicus, whom he drove out of Asia, at the same time vastly enlarging his own dominions, which now included the greater part of Asia Minor north of Taurus and west of the Halys. It is true he lost these conquests in B.C. 221, but in B.C. 214 he regained them by the goodwill of Antiochus the Great, whom he had assisted against Achæus. In B.C. 211 he took the bold step of allying himself with Rome, a step which proved of great advantage to his successors. He assisted the Romans in both their wars against Philip, and lent them very valuable aid, more especially at sea, defeating and destroying Philip's fleet at Chios, B.C. 201. Attalus adorned his capital with magnificent buildings, especially

Hellas except Ætolia. Doson died in B.C. 220, and Philip came into possession of his kingdom. He was at once involved in a war with the Ætolians, who took advantage of his youth and inexperience to attack his subject allies, the Achæans, but were severely chastised, and almost reduced to extremities in the course of four years (B.C. 220—217), by the active and enterprising Macedonian. Here, however, his successes ceased. In B.C. 215 he allowed himself to be drawn into an alliance with Carthage by Hannibal, and provoked a war with Rome by attacking Apollonia. The war lasted seven years (B.C. 214—207) and terminated without much advantage to either party. It was followed by a war with Egypt, Rhodes and Pergamus, which were all more or less under Roman protection, and though on this side Philip made some acquisitions of territory, they were a poor set off against the increased bitterness with which Rome regarded his proceedings. This bitterness found vent, as soon as Carthage was subdued, in a "Second Roman War," which brought Philip down upon his knees. Defeated at Cynocephalæ by Flamininus (B.C. 197), he was forced to evacuate all the Greek cities which he held, whether in Europe or Asia, to surrender his state galley and all his navy except five light ships, to give up all his Roman prisoners and deserters, and to pay to Rome 1,000 talents, 500 at once and the rest in ten annual instalments. He had also to abstain from all aggressive war, and to surrender any claim to his revolted province, Orestia. The general

settlement of Greece made by Flamininus (B.C. 194) was not unfavourable to Macedonia. It was based on a principle of division and isolation which prevented the formation of any considerable power, while it left the Achæan and Ætolian leagues to balance each other and check each other by their mutual jealousies. Philopœmen's successes, B.C. 192, somewhat deranged this policy, but did not wholly frustrate it. In B.C. 179 Philip died, after an actual reign of 41 years, and left his crown to his son, Perseus. Perseus was the last Macedonian monarch. He felt that a Roman war was impending, and made great preparations against it, recruited his finances, increased his army, made alliances with Seleucus IV. of Syria, with Prusias of Bithynia, with Cotys the Odrysian, Gentius the Illyrian, the Scordisci, the Bastarnæ, the Bœotians, and others. But he procrastinated when he ought to have acted. He allowed the Romans to crush his friends in Greece without assisting them (B.C. 171), he offended his other allies by a refusal of subsidies, and when actual war came upon him, B.C. 170, though he gained one victory, yet two years later he was completely defeated by Æmilius Paulus at Pydna, and forced to yield up his kingdom. The Romans divided Macedonia into four provinces, abolished the Ætolian league, broke up Bœotia, and after a short pause, drove Achæa into resistance, and in B.C. 146, crushed out the last faint spark of Hellenic independence. Achæa and Macedonia became Roman provinces.

invaded Greece, lost his life at Argos, and Gonatas recovered his sovereignty.

Macedonian history now enters upon a new phase. The crown is settled in the Antigonid family. Relations with the East and with Egypt, become of secondary importance, new enemies showing themselves in the Hellenic peninsula and in Italy. The Achæan league, from B.C. 243 to B.C. 222, and after that the Ætolian set themselves up as counterpoises to Macedon in Southern and Central Greece, and in B.C. 228, Rome begins the series of encroachments on Grecian territory which bring her necessarily into hostile collision with both Greece and Macedon. Attention has to be turned to these enemies, and Achæa, Sparta, Ætolia, even Carthage, became of more account in the eyes of Macedonian statesmen than Asia Minor, Syria or Egypt.

The second reign of Gonatas lasted 32 years, from B.C. 271 to 239. During the earlier portion of this time he was bent on establishing his authority over Greece, and was engaged in hostilities with Athens and Sparta; but in B.C. 265 he had to repel an invasion of Macedonia by Alexander of Epirus, and it was not till B.C. 263 that he succeeded in capturing Athens. A time of tranquillity followed, which he disturbed in B.C. 244, by the treacherous seizure of Corinth. This drew upon him the hostility of the Achæan league; and Aratus, its head,

in the following year, took Corinth out of his hands, and received it into the league, which was almost directly afterwards joined by Megara, Trœzen and Epidaurus. Antigonus submitted to his losses, being now old and infirm, and died a few years later, B.C. 239, at the age of eighty. The short reign of his son, Demetrius II., followed, B.C. 239—229, and was very uneventful. Demetrius contended with the Achæan and Ætolian leagues, but made little impression upon either. He was also engaged in wars with Illyrian tribes, especially the Dardanians. The chief event of his reign was the first invasion of the Hellenic peninsula by the Romans, who, after conquering Corcyra, took possession of Apollonia and Epidamnus. Demetrius, who died in B.C. 229, was succeeded by his son, Philip, a boy of eight. During his earlier years the royal authority was really exercised by Antigonus III. (Doson), his father's first cousin, who was content to leave the Southern Greeks to themselves, while he maintained his own power in Macedonia and Thessaly. The movements in Greece during his time were of great interest, and at last compelled his interference. Sparta, regenerated by Cleomenes, defeated the Achæans, absorbed Argos, and took Corinth, Epidaurus, Hermione and Trœzen under her protection. Aratus, upon this invoked the aid of Doson, and the two together, having defeated Cleomenes at Sellasia (B.C. 221), utterly crushed Sparta, with the result that Macedonia became once more supreme over almost all

ROYAL HOUSE OF THE ANTIGONIDÆ (*continued*).

B.C. B.C.	Name of King.	Length of Reign.
279—277	Anarchy	2 years.
277—273	2. Antigonus Gonatas	4 years.
273—271	Pyrrhus (a second time)	2 years.
271—239	Antigonus Gonatas (a second time)	32 years.
239—229	3. Demetrius II.	10 years.
229—220	4. Antigonus Doson (regent)	9 years.
220—179	5. Philip III.	41 years.
179—168	6. Perseus	11 years.

The kingdom of Macedonia now became for a time a prize for the strongest. The royal house of Alexander was wholly, that of Antipater almost wholly, extinct. Poliorcetes, who usurped the throne in B.C. 294, had absolutely no claim to it. Yet, having gained it, he was not content. He first conquered Central Greece, then proceeded to attack Epirus, B.C. 290, finally declared himself heir to the entire dominion of his father Antigonus, and threatened to invade Asia. He thus concentrated on himself the enmity of three powerful kings, Seleucus, Lysimachus and Pyrrhus.

Attacked by the two latter, he was forced to fly into Greece, and to relinquish the Macedonian throne, which fell at first to Pyrrhus (B.C. 287), but within a year was seized by Lysimachus, who added Macedon to his extensive dominions. The quarrel between Lysimachus and Seleucus, which broke out in B.C. 281, and was terminated by the battle of Corupedion, gave Macedon to the Syrian monarch; but his reign over it was short. Within a year, he was murdered by an Egyptian refugee, Ptolemy Ceraunus, who, in the confusion that followed, boldly seized the Macedonian crown, and wore it for two years, when the great invasion of the Gauls, B.C. 279, overwhelmed and destroyed him. Anarchy then set in for two years, but in B.C. 277, the Gallic wave having spent itself, Macedonia became once more a kingdom. Two pretenders to the crown appeared, Antipater, a nephew of Cassander, the last scion of the old house, and Antigonus Gonatas, a son of Demetrius Poliorcetes. The latter proved victorious, and succeeded in seating himself upon the throne of his father. But the rule of the Antigonidæ was not yet assured. In B.C. 273, Pyrrhus, having failed in his attempt on Italy, returned to Epirus, and claimed the crown which he had once worn for a year. Antigonus resisted, but in vain. Pyrrhus carried all before him, and Antigonus had to fly into Greece, leaving Macedonia to his rival. The second reign of Pyrrhus over Macedon lasted two years, B.C. 273–271; but the restless adventurer, having

Alexander the Great and Roxana. During the absence of Alexander the Great in Asia, he had successfully warred with Sparta, and had defeated the king, Agis, and slain him, with the greater part of his army, B.C. 330. As soon as news of the death of Alexander reached Greece, a more serious disturbance broke out. Almost all Greece revolted, excepting Sparta and Bœotia. The "Lamian War" followed. Antipater was defeated at Thermopylæ and besieged in Lamia, but relieved by the victory of Crannon (B.C. 322). The league then fell to pieces, and the rule of Macedonia was restored. Antipater had now a short struggle with Perdiccas, from which he emerged victorious, B.C. 320, but only to reign two years in peace before he died, B.C. 318. He left the sovereignty of Macedon, not to his son, Cassander, but to his co-regent, Polysperchon, an injudicious proceeding, which led to an immediate outbreak. Cassander, Antigonus and Ptolemy Lagi, allied themselves against Eumenes and Polysperchon, and the second "War of the Satraps" began. Antigonus was successful in Asia, and Cassander in Europe. Polysperchon was driven out of Macedonia, and the rule of Cassander established, B.C. 316. Cassander, though utterly unprincipled, possessed great ability. Contrary to his pledged word, he put Olympias, Alexander's mother, to death. He also murdered Roxana, together with her son, the young Alexander, connived at the murder of Hercules, and broke his promises to Polysperchon. He was, however, brave and energetic,

and succeeded in maintaining his authority over Macedon, under circumstances of great difficulty for 15 years, when the strain was relieved by the defeat and death of Antigonus at Ipsus. He then ruled Macedon for three years longer in peace, dying B.C. 298, and leaving his crown to his eldest son, Philip. This prince died a natural death within a year, whereupon a division of the kingdom was made between her two other sons by Thessalonica, Cassander's widow, and Antipater II., with his brother, Alexander, reigned conjointly for three years, B.C. 297—294. The joint-kings, however, quarrelled from the first. Antipater appealed for aid to Lysimachus, and Alexander to Demetrius, the son of Antigonus; but these selfish princes murdered their respective *protégés*, and the dynasty of Antipater came to an end, B.C. 294.

ROYAL HOUSE OF THE ANTIGONIDÆ.

B.C. B.C.	Name of King.	Length of Reign.
294—287	1. Demetrius (Poliorcetes)	7 years.
287—286	Pyrrhus (usurper)	1 year.
286—281	Lysimachus (do.)	5 years.
281—281	Seleucus Nicator (do.)	1 year.
281—279	Ptolemy Ceraunus (do.)	2 years.

Ptolemy XII., had a reign of 14 years, if we count from B.C. 65, or of 29, if we reckon from B.C. 80. He was weak, effeminate and extravagant, and so disgusted his subjects that in B.C. 59 they rose against him and expelled him from his kingdom, at the same time placing his two daughters, Tryphœna and Berenice, upon the throne. Tryphœna died after reigning a year; Berenice held the throne for four years, when the great Pompey sent a strong force under Gabinius to restore Auletes. Auletes executed Berenice, and then reigned about three and-a-half years under the protection of the Romans. He died B.C. 51, having done as much as in him lay to ruin and degrade his country. A son and a daughter of Auletes, aged thirteen and seventeen, were declared joint sovereigns, and required to become husband and wife. The daughter was the well-known Cleopatra, the mistress afterwards of Julius Cæsar and of Antony. She accepted her boy-husband, Ptolemy XIII., with disdain, and soon afterwards attempted to deprive him of his kingdom. War followed, and Julius, embracing her cause, defeated and slew the young prince, and established the rule of his sister, B.C. 47. He required her, however, to take for a second husband, her younger brother, and to associate him with her on the throne, to which she consented with reluctance. In B.C. 44 she murdered this prince and resumed her sole reign, which she prolonged till B.C. 30, when she committed suicide after the death of Antony.

III.—*History of Macedon and Greece from the death of Alexander to the Roman Conquest*, B.C. 323—147.

The Macedonian monarchy, on the death of Alexander, fell into the hands of Antipater, whom he had left behind him as governor. But the dynasty of Antipater was, comparatively speaking, short-lived. It held the throne no more than thirty years, from B.C. 323 to B.C. 294, and comprised only five kings. See the subjoined table.

ROYAL HOUSE OF ANTIPATER.

B.C. B.C.	Name of King.	Length of Reign.
323—318	1. Antipater	5 years.
318—316	Polysperchon (regent)	2 years.
316—298	2. Cassander	18 years.
298—297	3. Philip	1 year.
297—294	4. Antipater II.	3 years.
	5. Alexander	3 years.

Antipater did not himself assume the royal title. He was content to be recognised as regent for Philip Arrhidæus and the young Alexander, the son of

incapable men, Eulæus and Lennæus, attacked Antiochus Epiphanes in B.C. 170, and provoked a quarrel which brought Egypt to the verge of destruction. Again the protection of Rome saved her, B.C. 168; and the joint reign of Philometor with his brother Physcon, which Rome established, secured tranquillity for about four years, B.C. 169—165. Then, however, the brothers quarrelled, and a war ensued, which lasted till B.C. 154. Physcon was finally made king of Cyrene, and the sole sovereignty of Egypt restored to Philometor. Soon afterwards, having been offended by Demetrius I., of Syria, Philometor set up Alex. Balas as a pretender to the Syrian crown, and marched on Antioch to assist him. Here, however, he lost his life, being thrown from his horse and killed. His son, Ptol. Eupator, was proclaimed king, but reigned only a few weeks, being murdered by his uncle, Ptolemy Physcon, king of Cyrene, who now took the throne and reigned as Ptolemy VIII. for 29 years, from B.C. 146 to B.C. 117. Physcon was a monster of cruelty and depravity. He half emptied Alexandria by his executions. He repudiated his wife, Cleopatra, his sister, and his brother's widow, to marry her daughter by his brother, and afterwards murdered his own son by her, Memphitis, to cause her grief. During three years he was expelled from Egypt by the Alexandrians, who made Cleopatra queen in his stead, B.C. 130. Re-established, however, in B.C. 127, he reigned for another ten years, during which he was engaged in war with Syria, supporting the pretender,

Alex. Zabinas, against the second Demetrius. Physcon was succeeded by his eldest son, Ptolemy IX. (Lathyrus), who remained for ten years (B.C. 117—107) under the tutelage of his mother, Cleopatra, the second wife of Physcon; after which he had to fly to Cyprus, while his mother and Alexander (Ptolemy X.) ruled Egypt for eighteen years, when they fell out. Cleopatra was murdered, Alexander expelled by his subjects, and Lathyrus recalled to have a further reign of eight years, B.C. 89—81. Under Lathyrus, Egypt finally lost the Cyrenaica, and half lost Cyprus. She was also weakened by a civil war in Upper Egypt, where Thebes revolted, and was not reduced till after three years. Lathyrus, having left no son, was succeeded hy his only daughter, Berenice, who continued sole monarch for six months, when she married, and associated with her in the government, Ptol. Alexander II., the son of Ptol. Alexander I., who is known as Ptolemy XI. This wretch murdered his wife within three months of his marriage, and was then torn to pieces by the Alexandrians in their fury at so black an outrage. The succession was now disputed between a number of claimants (B.C. 80–65), among whom were two illegitimate sons of Lathyrus, two sons of Selene, his sister, and Antiochus Eusebes of Syria. Rome decided in favour of the elder of the two sons of Lathyrus, who mounted the throne about B.C. 65, but counted the years of his reign from B.C. 80. This prince, who took various names, among them that of Auletes, and is known as

person the *disjecta membra* of the empire of Alexander. He invaded Syria, B.C. 245, in the third year of his reign, defeated Seleucus Callinicus, took Antioch, overran Mesopotamia, Babylonia, Susiana, Media and Persia, and received the submission of the other eastern provinces. After this he proceeded into Asia Minor, reduced Cilicia, Pamphylia, Lycia, Caria and Ionia, conquered the Cyclades, and added to his dominions a portion of Macedonian Thrace, including the city of Lysimacheia in the Chersonese. But troubles at home recalled him, and he lost the greater portion of his conquests. Still, those in Asia Minor and Europe were retained; and in the latter part of his reign, he took possession of a portion of Ethiopia. Euergetes was also a patron of the arts and of letters. Apollonius Rhodius, Eratosthenes and Aristophanes of Byzantium adorned his court. And his architectural works, built in the Egyptian style for the gratification of his Egyptian subjects, were of extraordinary grandeur and magnificence.

The glorious period of the Lagid monarchy here terminates. The three great Ptolemies were followed by eleven others, and by five princesses of the same house, who were all almost equally profligate, wicked and incapable. Except Philometor, who was mild and humane, Lathyrus, who was amiable but weak, and two or three young princes who were merely incompetent, they were, all of them, almost equally detestable.

Ptolemy IV. (Philopator) succeeded his father, Euergetes, in B.C. 222. On ascending the throne, he almost immediately put to death his mother, Berenice, his brother, Magas, and his uncle, Lysimachus. He then engaged in war with Antiochus the Great, and at the first suffered considerable losses, but recovered them in B.C. 217 by the battle of Raphia. His internal government of his kingdom was weak in the extreme, and led to popular disturbance. He died at the early age of forty, worn out by his excesses, and left his crown to his son, Ptol. Epiphanes, a boy of five years of age (B.C. 205). Epiphanes held the throne for twenty-four years. The affairs of Egypt were very ill-managed during his minority, first by Agathocles, and then by Tlepolemus. Philip III. of Macedon and Antiochus III. of Syria leagued themselves against her, and stripped her of all her European and Asiatic dominions except Cyprus. The interference of Rome alone prevented further losses. When the minority of Epiphanes was over, matters but slightly improved. He married Cleopatra, daughter of Antiochus, but her dowry of Cœle-Syria and Palestine was kept back. He poisoned his minister, Aristomenes, and provoked fresh troubles among his subjects. In B.C. 181 their patience was exhausted, and his courtiers murdered him, secure of general approval. The long reign of Ptolemy VI. (Philometor), B.C. 181—146, followed. He was no more than seven years old at his accession; and Egypt was consequently for a time administered by regents. These

native Egyptian thought, of which the result showed itself ultimately in the Neo-Platonic philosophy and a school of Christian teaching, whereof the chief ornaments were Clement, Cyril and Origen. Though thus to some extent a mixed community, she was still, of course, predominantly Grecian; and during the Ptolemean period took the lead in almost every branch of Greek science, art and learning; as the labours of Euclid and Apollonius of Perga in mathematics; of Philetas, Callimachus, and Apollonius of Rhodes, in poetry; of Aristophanes of Byzantium, and Aristarchus in criticism; of Eratosthenes in chronology and geography; of Hipparchus in astronomy; of Manetho in history; and of Apelles and Antiphilus in painting, who all worked under Ptolemean patronage, sufficiently show. Manetho's labours, and the translation of the Jewish Scriptures, known as "the Septuagint," are particularly characteristic of the period, showing the interest which the Greek mind began to take in the thought and history of nations which she had hitherto despised as "barbarous."

The first Ptolemy (Ptol. Lagi) was great both in peace and in war. Abroad he established his authority by arms over Palestine, Phœnicia and Cœle-Syria, conquered Cyprus after a severe struggle, and possessed himself of the Cyrenaica. At home he organised the administration on an excellent system, which contented the natives and entirely put a stop to revolts. He

began the collection of the great Alexandrian library, founded the "Museum," and so made Alexandria a university, invited men of learning from all parts, and adorned his capital with a number of beautiful buildings. His son, Ptolemy II. (Philadelphus), who succeeded him in B.C. 283, was less of a warrior, but quite equalled his father in the arts of peace. He maintained the general balance of power by wars with Antiochus I. and Antiochus II. of Syria, and with Antigonus Gonatas of Macedon. He lost, however, the Cyrenaica to his half-brother, Magas, B.C. 259. In Egypt, he developed commerce by the reopening of the canal between the Nile and the Red Sea, which had been originally excavated by the second Ramesses, built Arsinoë near the site of Suez, established a trade in the Red Sea, and constructed two ports on its western coast, to each of which he gave the name of Berenice. A high-road was opened from Coptos, near Thebes, to the northern Berenice, and a commerce carried on with India, Arabia and Ethiopia of a most lucrative character. Literature and art were also encouraged. The Septuagint translation was commenced; Manetho was induced to compose in Greek his "History of Egypt." A second library was formed. The court was graced by the presence of Theocritus, Callimachus, Euclid, Aristarchus of Samos, and Aratus. The third Ptolemy (Euergetes) ascended the throne in B.C. 247. He was the most warlike of the Lagid princes, and the only one who had the ambition to re-unite in his own

ROYAL HOUSE OF THE PTOLEMIES (*continued*).

B.C. B.C.	Name of King.	Length of Reign.
81—80	12. Berenice	9 months.
	13. Ptolemy XI. (Alexander II.)	3 months.
80—51	14. Ptolemy XII. (Auletes)	29 years.
59—58	15. Tryphœna	1 year.
59—55	16. Berenice II.	4 years.
51—30	17. Cleopatra	21 years.
51—47	18. Ptolemy XIII.	4 years.
44—44	19. Ptolemy XIV.	1 year.

The earlier kings of this series were by far the most distinguished. The first, second and third Ptolemies, whose united reigns covered a space of above a century, raised Egypt to a position which she had not occupied since the dynasty of the Psammetichi. At the same time they imparted to her civilisation an entirely new character. By the settlement of the seat of government at Alexandria, Egypt became pre-eminently a naval and commercial power. She desired and held possessions beyond the seas, as Cyprus, Cilicia, and for a time Corinth and Sicyon. She also brought into close contact the very different elements of Hebrew, Greek, and

Seleucidæ. Ptolemy Lagi, though he did not assume the diadem till about B.C. 306, was a king in everything but the name from B.C. 323; and his descendants occupied the throne till the death of Cleopatra in B.C. 30. Thus the Ptolemean monarchy lasted within a little of three centuries. The monarchs who sat upon the Egyptian throne during the period, including queens, were nineteen in number (see the subjoined table):—

ROYAL HOUSE OF THE PTOLEMIES.

B.C. B.C.	Name of King.	Length of Reign.
323—283	1. Ptolemy I. (Lagi)	40 years
283—247	2. Ptolemy II. (Philadelphus)	36 years.
247—222	3. Ptolemy III. (Euergetes)	25 years.
222—205	4. Ptolemy IV. (Philopator)	17 years
205—181	5. Ptolemy V. (Epiphanes)	24 years.
181—146	6. Ptolemy VI. (Philometor)	35 years.
146—146	7. Ptolemy VII. (Eupator)	1 month.
146—117	8. Ptolemy VIII. (Physcon)	29 years.
117—81	9. Ptolemy IX. (Lathyrus)	36 years.
107—89	10. Cleopatra	18 years.
107—89	11 Ptolemy X. (Alexander)	18 years

...ued).

south. The civil war was still raging when Ant... VIII. was assassinated, B.C. 96, by an officer o... court, and his place was taken by his son, Seleucus V (Epiphanes), who defeated Antiochus IX. (Cyzicenus and slew him (B.C. 95). Antiochus X. (Eusebes), however, in the same year drove Seleucus out of Syria into Cilicia, where he was burnt alive by the people of Mopsuestia. Antiochus X. was in his turn assailed by Philip, younger brother of Seleucus, who drove him to take refuge in Parthia, after which some of Philip's brothers quarrelled with him, and a new civil war broke out. At length, in B.C. 83, the Syrians, wearied of these perpetual contests, called in Tigranes of Armenia to rule them, and obtained a respite from suffering for fourteen years. The end now rapidly approached. Tigranes took part against Rome in the Mithridatic war, was defeated, and forced by the Romans to relinquish Syria. A scion of the old royal house, Antiochus XI., son of Eumenes, was placed upon the throne, B.C. 69; but within the space of four years the Romans deposed him and reduced Syria into the form of a province, B.C. 65.

II.—*History of the Egyptian Kingdom of the Ptolemies,* B.C. 323—30.

The Egyptian kingdom of the Ptolemies began earlier, and continued longer, than the Syrian kingdom